CERTAIN PERSONALITY CORRELATES OF NEED

FOR ACHIEVEMENT

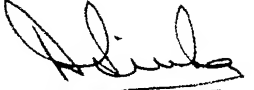
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D. PHIL. THESIS

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1967

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that this thesis
entitled, "Certain Personality Correlates of Need
for Achievement", by R.K. Misra, was conducted un-
der my supervision, and constitutes his own work.

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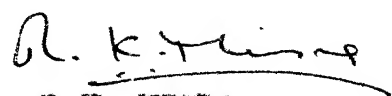
A C K N O W L E D G M E N T

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Allahabad:
May 20, 1967.

R.K. MISRA

C O N T E N T S

APPENDICES :

    (A)   OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

    (B)   MADRAS P F STUDY

    (C)   SINHA W.A. SELF-ANALYSIS FORM

    (D)   SELF CONCEPT INVENTORY (SINHA & SINGH)

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

"He could have added fortune to fame, but
caring for neither, he found happiness and honour
in being helpful to the world."

This is the epitaph on the grave of George
Washington Carver (1861-1943), the famous Negro scien-
tist and artist about whom Lawrance Elliot (1965)
writes in his book, Beyond Fame or Fortune. The life
of Carver was characterized by innumerable accomplish-
ments. He worked on various projects, solved many
problems, helped others, and all this he did for a sense
of having done a job well. His researches on the
synthetic treasures of peanuts such as shoe polish,
peanut butter and milk, and shaving cream, made him
known as The Peanut Man. He neither expected nor accep-
ted any reward for letting his discoveries known to
others. He derived a sense of pleasure and gratifi-
cation out of his accomplishments.

Many people like Carver enjoy their achievements
not as a means to some end but as ends in themselves.
They derive satisfaction from having done a job well.
They are concerned with activities, doing of which
would instil in them a feeling of achievement, a sense
of having done something well. They are proud of
their accomplishments not that they want recognition,
status, power, or popularity, but because these indi-
viduals develop and possess an emotional responsiveness

to their performance. Whether or not their achieve-
ments are perceived by others, they are content with
having performed an act well. Their aim seems to be
the achievement of a sense of achievement. Doing a
task in the case of these individuals involves an
emotional satisfaction.

However, there are individuals who are different
from the ones described above. Such persons are con-
cerned with doing a job as a means to some end. They
do not aim at an emotional satisfaction from a task.
Instead, their objective is to attain something else
(other than a pride in accomplishment) through an act.
They want to derive certain concrete goals out of doing
a job instead of an abstract feeling of achievement.
They are emotionally apathetic to the feeling of achieve-
ment. It is not so important for them.

The distinguishing point between those two types
of individuals is the degree of need Achievement. A
person with a high amount of need for Achievement is
emotionally involved in his performance, while the one
who is low on n Ach is emotionally indifferent in rela-
tion to his performance. Both of those are engaged in
goal-oriented acts. Both are concerned with the attain-
ment of goals. They are, however, not similar to each
other beyond this. An individual who is high on need
Achievement, in addition to the attainment of goals, is

also interested in having a sense of attainment. The person who possesses a low need for Achievement is concerned only with attaining a goal.

The sense of achievement seems to be directly related to the number of goals which are attained by the persons with a high need for Achievement. Thus greater the number of the goals attained, more would be the sense of achievement derived from them. Since the people with a high amount of need Achievement are concerned with a feeling of accomplishment, it implies that every time they attain a goal they would also obtain a satisfaction from success. It means, such persons should be interested in the goals which are easily attainable. For, more easily attainable a goal is, greater would be the chances of achieving it, and consequently, more would be the satisfaction of achievement. But this is not true. The seeming contradiction represents an artefact. There is an important condition which needs to be taken into account, namely. the difficulty level of the task.

Amongst a number of goals existing for the different people, there are some which are easy to attain and others which are difficult. The attainability of a goal or the successful completion of a task is something which functions in relation to (a) an individual's objectively evaluated capacities and potentialities, and (b) his own evaluation of his capacities and abilities.

For example, completing a world tour on a cycle could
be the goal for a number of individuals who felt they
could attain it. An objective assessment in terms of
the health data, financial resources etc. might, however,
reveal that some of them would not be able to make it.
Similarly, a science graduate who never progressed
beyond an average in his academic grades might set the
goal of developing a new theorem in mathematics, while
his teachers would brush this idea aside as a mere day
dreaming.

It follows from the above that the chances of
succeeding on a task is an inverse function of the dis-
crepancy between the objective and the subjective eva-
luations of one's capacities in relation to the task.
That means the difficulty level of task could be divided
into two components : the subjectively perceived level
of difficulty, and the objectively assessed level. It
is the former namely, the subjective level of difficulty,
which is a variable determining the relationship bet-
ween the need for Achievement and the attraction of the
attainable goals.

The sense of achievement could not be much if a
person attained something which would be easily attain-
able by him. Instead, it would be great if he was just
sure of succeeding on a task. A person with a high
need for Achievement would not derive any satisfaction

of success if he achieved what was too easy for him.
In this case, there is hardly any reason to be proud
of his accomplishment. Similarly, he would be indifferent
towards the goals which are too difficult to attain.
For, he would not risk his feeling of achievement so
much so that there is hardly any chance of success. As
pointed out earlier, a sense of accomplishment is of
prime concern to an individual who is high on n Achieve-
ment. He would therefore prefer the tasks, success
on which is neither too easy nor too difficult. He
would prefer an intermediate level of difficulty for
selecting his tasks. That is why the "apparently logi-
cal" generalization of a direct relationship between
the difficulty level of tasks and the need for Achievement,
does not hold true.

The concept of n Achievement cannot be properly
understood unless it is seen as a special aspect of the
broad core of achievement. To achieve always implies
meeting a goal. The goal may be set by many, and the
diverse, needs of the organism. Physical hunger may set
a goal for food intake, the necessity to earn money
another, to keep a job, or to work on a research pro-
ject may set still other goals.

Among the many goals to be achieved, one type
of goal is singled out for its psychological importance
to the individual. It is where the goal is set for the
specific reason that its very attainment, independent of

any other reward, is reward-giving. The activity is
not related to the physiological, biological or any
direct environmental-imbalance-restoring process.
Its aim is the satisfaction of "achieving", in and
by, itself.

An individual A, who has a high need for achieve-
ment does a job and obtains satisfaction only from the
feeling that he has accomplished something by doing it.
On the other hand, an individual B, with low n Achieve-
ment does a job and obtains some satisfaction, but not
the satisfaction of having done it well. Both indivi-
duals A, and B, are concerned with achieving something.
Both may be doing a "good job". The amount of satis-
faction, however, for having done a good job is different
in individual A, from the one in the individual B.
For example, person B needing to write a good article
may be happy that it is done with. It is off his mind.
Person A needs to write an article. He also gets some
enjoyment from having done it. But he additionally
enjoys having done it well and expertly, he receives
pleasure, gratification, from the goal itself. There
are two, rather than one, goals that he achieves : the
achievement, and the sense of achievement. He derives
satisfaction from his achieving achievements.

The need for Achievement, provides a basis for
the functioning of an individual. It may be visualized

as the Spearman's "g" or as Cattell's "source trait" operating as a focal need and laying down a significant dimension of behaviour. It functions as an important vector within an individual and decides the nature of the organization of much of his experiences.

The pride of accomplishment is related to the standards of excellence. The degree of affect that follows goal attainment in him reflects an individual's n Achievement. The expectations related to n Achievement centre around the standards of performance. The affect involved in it is concerned with the feeling whether or not the performance is in keeping with the standards set for it. The n Achievement may be defined as "affect in connection with evaluated performance" (McClelland et al, 1953, p.79).

The need for Achievement is aroused whenever a person expects that his performance is to be evaluated in terms of certain standards of excellence. The presence of a need (N) in a person arouses anticipatory goal states (G) which may be positive (Ga+) or negative (Ga-). Perception of goal leads to some instrumental activity (I) which may (i.e. I+) or may not (i.e. I-) help in the process of goal attainment. If the instrumental activity is positive it may operate through some assistance from the environment, i.e. the nurturant press (Nup). If the instrumental

activity turns out to be negative, it means there is
some obstacle or barrier either within the person (Bp
or in the external environment (Bw). The relationship
between these components is shown in Figure 1.

The anticipatory goal states or expectations
function as cues for the redintegration of the affec-
tive change in the individual. Performance in a situa-
tion takes place in the context of various stimuli.
It is also accompanied and followed by an emotional
state. By the contiguity between emotions and various
other stimuli of the situation, the two get associated
so that these stimuli acquire the function of cues in
subsequent situation. Any one of these (cues) may
arouse a part of the original emotional state experienced
by the individual. It is not necessary that those
cues must always be external. They may be internal
also and operate in the form of thought processes.
(Cofer and Appley, 1964)

The numerous problem-solving situations and the
external and internal demands made by others interact
to build up the expectations in an individual and make
him aware of his achievements. He may experience a
sense of pride in his accomplishments depending upon
how well has been able to structure his expectations
or his level of adaptation.

All motives could be understood in terms of (1)
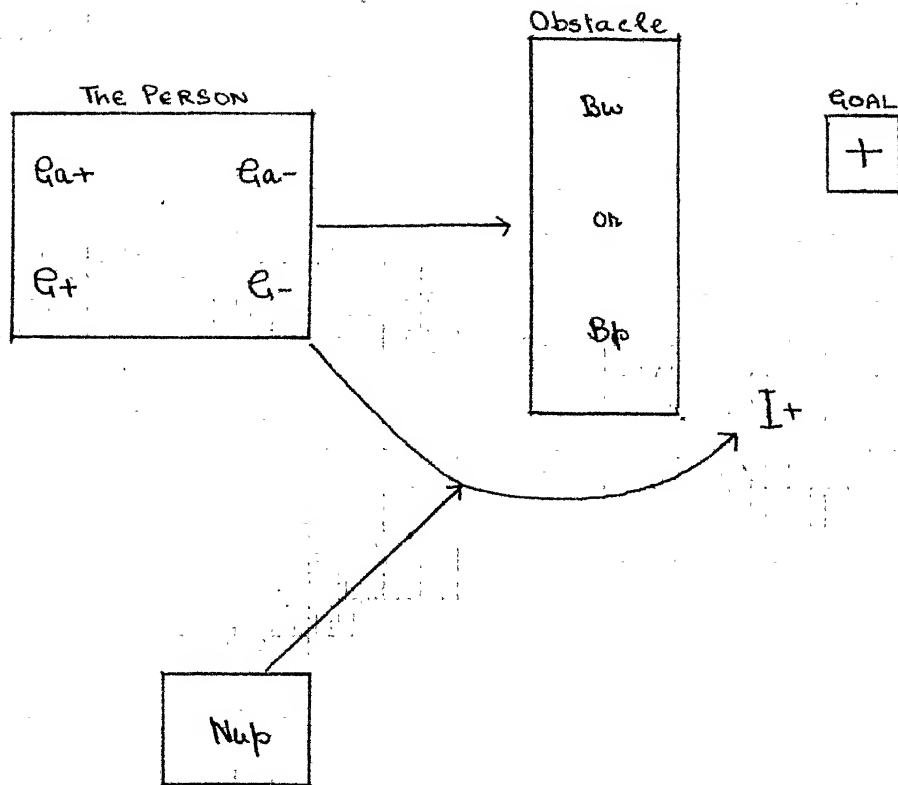the expectancy whether or not the act would help one

FIG. 1. COMPONENTS OF ADJUSTIVE BEHAVIOUR

[McClelland et al, 1953, p.109]

attain the goal; and (ii) the incentive value of the
goal, i.e. the nature and degree of affect expected to
be experienced following goal attainment (Atkinson,
1964).

The tendency to approach success, according to
Atkinson, is a multiplicative function of the motive
to attain success, expectancy, and the incentive value
of the goal :

$$T_s = f (M_s \times P_s \times I_s)$$

Where

T_s = tendency to approach success

M_s = motive to attain success

P_s = probability that a certain act would lead to goal attainment

I_s = incentive value of the success

(Atkinson, 1964)

The n Achievement is markedly reflected or in-
volved in those activities where probability of attain-
ing success plays a crucial role. This is nowhere
more clearly shown than in the field of business and
enterpreneurial activities. Max Weber (1930) observed
that the Protestant Christians were more keen on
taking up business than their Catholic counterparts
instead of going in for other means of livelihood.
A consistent relationship of this kind led him to argue
that it was more a question of ideology rather than
some situational factors. The Calvinistic concept of

predistination acted as an impetus to do away with
any "medium" for entering the Kingdom of God. The
individual had to be on his own. It called for a sig-
nificant shift in his way of life. The attainment of
salvation was no longer a function of the Holy Commu-
nion, or the Father, or the Confession. It was a
function of the feeling of having done one's job well.
The Protestants changed their value system altogether.
For them "evaluation of the fulfilment of duty" (Weber,
1930, p.80) was the highest form of moral activity.
Because of the stress laid upon the "person" as such,
Protestants seem to possess a higher amount of n
Achievement than the Catholics.

The need for Achievement may then be looked upon
as "a disposition to derive satisfaction from success",
(Smith, 1963, p.125). It may be conceived as a dimen-
sion of personality development which is described by
a number of factors including the child rearing prac-
tices, and the internal and the external demands made
upon an individual. The literature on n Achievement
also throws light on its nature and role in human be-
haviour.

RÉSUMÉ OF THE LITERATURE ON NEED
FOR ACHIEVEMENT

Making its debut in psychology in 1938 as a
hypothetical construct (Murray, 1938) implying an orga-

nismic variable of behaviour, the concept of $\underline{n}$ Ach
was taken up for intensive study following the obser-
vations in the late forties and early fifties that
the physiological needs were projected by the subjects
in perceptual processes (McClelland and Atkinson, 1948)
The question was, like the physiological needs could
one not make the subjects project their psychological
needs ? The initial work in this area was confined
to the need for Achievement, and the findings were pub-
lished in 1953 (McClelland et al.1953).

The systematic formulation of $\underline{n}$ Achievement and
the findings regarding its behavioural correlates in
1953 (McClelland et al, 1953) were followed by resear-
ches dealing with the various aspects of the concept.
By now, over 200 such studies have been made on $\underline{n}$
Achievement. Atkinson (1958; 1964) and McClelland
(1961; 1964) present the important findings in regard
to the need for Achievement.

The need for Achievement has been defined
differently by the various writers. McClelland et al
(1953) describe it as "affect in connection with eva-
luated performance". Working within a framework of the
affective arousal model, achievement motive is said
to function whenever performance is graded against a
set of standards. A feeling of achievement, or a
satisfaction of success that follows if the performance
is found to be equal to the expectations or standards

of behaviour, is described as the achievement motive.

Atkinson (1964) made this definition more specific and defined the n Achievement as the capacity to take pride in one's accomplishment. The precision of this definition lies in specifying the nature of the affect in relation to evaluated performance. Essentially there is no difference between these two definitions, and the one given by Smith (1963) who describes the need for Achievement as the desire for satisfaction in success.

French's description of the n Achievement (French, 1958) as a "need for the attainment of a standard of excellence" is closer to the McClelland's definition mentioned earlier. A desire to do well in relation to a set of expectations or a standard of excellence is the main characteristic of the need for Achievement.

Knapp (1958) provides a dynamic view of looking at the need Achievement. According to him, it is also an ego strategy. "As an ego strategy, it may be defined as a general policy of pursuing well-being through adopting an active manipulatory role with respect to the environment." (Knapp, 1958, p.371). The need for Achievement, according to Knapp, makes one overpower one's environment. Of course, the basic idea is to have a feeling of mastery and achievement in relation to the environment.

The motivational status of the need for Achieve-
ment is questioned by Cofer and Appley (1964). They
hold that the relationship between the achievement
motive and the patterns of behaviour is influenced
by the situations in which the n Ach is rooted. They
feel that it may be described "as a learned mode of
operation reinforced in relation to other drives."
(Cofer and Appley, 1964, p.767).

Defined variously as the affect in relation to
performance (McClelland et al, 1953), as the capacity
for taking pride in accomplishment (Atkinson, 1964),
as the desire for satisfaction in success (Smith, 1963),
as a need for the attainment of a standard of perfor-
mance (French, 1958), as an ego strategy (Knapp, 1958),
and as a learned mode of operation in relation to
other drives (Cofer and Appley, 1964), the need for
Achievement has been processed vigorously both at the
conceptual and the empirical levels.

There has been a marked growth in the researches
on need Achievement during the recent years. Even a
swift glance at the literature reflects the amazing
rate at which the concept has grown itself. Various
segments of human behaviour have been successfully
conceptualised in terms of the need Achievement. These
include socio-cultural variables, risk taking behaviour,
level of aspiration, subjective probability, personality

characteristics, self-concept, aesthetic preferences,
perception of time, scholastic achievement, behavioural
aberrations, learning, memory, and anxiety. Apart
from stressing the focal role of need Achievement in
human behaviour, these researches also forestall a
not-too-distant possibility of the fructuation of n Ach
into a comprehensive theory of behaviour.

In spite of the cogent implications of the stu-
dies bearing on need Achievement, one needs to be careful
in making generalizations on the basis of these results
mainly because these researches have used different
devices for the measurement of n Achievement and which,
as the evidence shows, do not tap the same aspect of
need Achievement.

In case of the Iowa Picture Interpretation Test
(Hurley, 1955), for instance, it has been shown that
it did not correlate significantly with the McClelland's
Thematic Apperceptive Test (McClelland et al, 1953)
of n Achievement (Williams, 1955). Both of the tests
probably measure different aspects of the need Achieve-
ment.

Insignificant relationships were also reported
between the McClelland's test and the Edwards' Personal
Preference Schedule (EPPS). (Edwards, 1954) and the
Insight Test (French, 1958), by Himelstein, Eschenbach
and Carp (1958) Marlowe (1959), and Melikian (1958).

Himelstein, Eschenbach and Carp (1958) investiga-

ting the relationship between the McClelland's fantasy measure of $\underline{n}$ Ach, the EPPS, and the Insight Test, administered those three tests on a sample of two hundred and ninety-eight male subjects in an Air Force Academy. In spite of the high inter-scorer reliabilities between the TAT and the Insight Test, the relationship between the three measures of $\underline{n}$ Ach was found to be insignificant. The coefficients of correlation ranged from -.067 to .105.

Marlowe (1959) observed that on a sample of forty-four male under-graduate subjects, the McClelland's TAT correlated insignificantly with the EPPS (the coefficient of correlation being -.05), though the TAT's correlation with a sociometric measure of $\underline{n}$ Ach was found to be significant ($\underline{r} = .33;$ $p < .05$).

The work by Melkian (1958) too showed that a group of sixty-nine subjects did not show any relationship between the McClelland's measure of $\underline{n}$ Achievement and the Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule.

In another research, Morrison (1964) failed to find a correlation between an eight-item Sentence Completion Test of $\underline{n}$ Ach with the McClelland's test. On a sample of thirty-seven subjects, the study yielded a coefficient of correlation of .33.

The lack of relationship between the different tests of $\underline{n}$ Ach seems to have one exception, namely the correlation between the McClelland's Test and the Graphic Expression Test (GET) of Aronson, (Aronson, 1958). The

Discrete-Fuzzy score on the GTT correlated significantly (at .05 and .01 levels) with the TAT n Achievement score on three groups of subjects (number of cases in the groups being 18, 51 and 75) out of a total of five groups, the number of subjects in the remaining two groups being 26 in each case. (Aronson, 1958).

The general position is that the different devices of measuring need Achievement do not provide a measure of the same specific segment of behaviour. Could this indicate the multi-dimensionality of the concept of need Achievement ? A number of workers have investigated this problem (Rosen, 1956; Bendig, 1959, 1964; Kahl, 1965; Zander and Medow, 1965).

Rosen (1956) postulated the idea of achievement syndrome comprising (a) need Achievement, and (b) value orientations, to demonstrate and explain the varying amount of concern with achievement as found among the different social strata in the American Society. In a sample of one hundred and twenty subjects drawn from the different socio-economic groups, the number of persons with high n Ach was maximum in the highest social stratum and lowest in the lowest, (p $<$ .001). In case of value orientations, however, a significantly larger number of persons with achievement-oriented values belonged to the middle class group (p $<$ .001).

Bendig's work is more revealing than Rosen's. It brought out some of the specific dimensions comprising

the need for Achievement. Hypothesizing, (a) personal
satisfaction from having successfully completed a difficult
task, (b) the satisfaction of being more successful
than others, and (c) the satisfaction of receiving
approval from others for being successful at the task,
as the three dimensions of need Achievement (Bendig,
1959), he conducted a factor-analytic study of the
three scales of n Achievement (Bendig, 1964) : the
Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule, the Wright's
Scale, and the Scale of Campbell. A factor analysis
of the inter-correlations of scores of three hundred
subjects (150 males and 150 females) yielded two fac-
tors (after orthogonal rotation). These were named as
those of "personal need achievement", (PNA), and "social
need achievement", (SNA).

Kahl (1965) went a step further from Bendig
and increased the components of need Achievement. It
was observed that the achievement orientation comprised,
(a) "mastery", (b) "trust", (c) "independence of family",
(d) "accomplishment".

Zander and Medow (1965), in line with the work
of Bendig (1959, 1964) developed a concept of the
"desire for group achievement", (dg n Ach) corresponding
to n Ach as such which referred to a desire for personal
Achievement.

The multi-dimensional status of need Achievement
has been upgraded on an ambitious scale (Mukherjee, 1965).

His forced-choice test of $\underline{v}$ Ach purports to cover as many as ten different aspects of achievement motivation : (i) hope of success, (ii) fear of failure, (iii) high standard of excellence, (iv) sense of competition, (v) optimism, (vi) perseverance, (vii) interest in making future plans, (viii) concern for creative work, (ix) preference for difficult and challenging tasks, and (x) identification with successful authority. In a factor analytic study of the test (Mukherjee, 1965) five different dimensions were recognized : (a) aspiration, (b) ego ideal, (c) perseverance, (d) identification, and (e) preference for difficult and challenging tasks.

The absence of inter-correlations of the different tests of need Achievement however does not nullify the relationship between $\underline{n}$ Achievement and other variables. To quote McClelland, "Where the various measures of Achievement motivation are compared, not within each other, but with respect to their relationship to other variables, the picture is little different."(McClelland, 1968, p.39). In spite of the different techniques used, the pattern of relationship between need Achievement and behavioural variables is convincingly consistent. This may become evident from a brief review of the $\underline{n}$ Ach studies that follows here.

The work on $\underline{n}$ Achievement could be described according to the variables with which it has been rela-

ted, namely, (i) socio-cultural variables, (ii) risk
taking behaviour, (iii) personality characteristics;
self-concept; aesthetic preferences; and perception
of time, (iv) scholastic achievement, (v) behavioural
aberrations, (vi) anxiety and (vii) learning and memory.

It must be added here that each section that
follows contains only a few of the illustrative studies
indicating the relationship between need achievement
and the different variables.

(i) NEED ACHIEVEMENT AND SOCIO-CULTURAL VARIABLES :

A large number of studies on need Achievement
and socio-cultural variables seems to have lent further
support to the basic theorizing in this field stressing
the social roots of n Ach. One of the most prominent
social variables is that of child rearing practices pre-
vailing in different societies. Evidence is at hand now
to show that need Achievement is an outcome of the kind
of family training in which there is an emphasis on
developing a feeling of independence in children.
(McClelland and Friedman, 1952; Winterbottom, 1958;
Brown, 1955; Mutall, 1964).

In a content analysis of the fairy tales of
eight North Indian American tribes, McClelland and Friedman
(1952) observed a positive relationship between need
Achievement and independence and self-reliance.

Similar findings could also be seen in the study
by Winterbottom (1958). She found that in a sample of

twenty-nine children (eight year olds) and their
mothers, the mothers of the boys who were high on
n Achievement made greater demands for independence,
rewarded their children's accomplishments more intense-
ly, and gave them training in independence earlier than
the mothers of the boys who scored low on need Achieve-
ment.

Brown (1953) and Mutall (1964) offered an indi-
rect evidence of the positive relationship between need
Achievement and the training in independence. Both the
studies obtained a negative relationship between n
Achievement and authoritarianism.

Brown (1953) reported a significantly negative
relation between n Ach and the scores on California
F-Scale (Adorno et al, 1950).

Mutall's study (Mutall, 1964) also showed a
negative coefficient of correlation between n Achieve-
ment and authoriterian child training attitudes on a
sample of two hundred cases. He also found that the
absence of father was related to a low amount of need
Achievement. A study of folk tales by Child, Storm,
and Veroff (1958), however, failed to confirm the fin-
dings of McClelland and Friedman (1952), Child, Storm
and Veroff (1958) conducted a content analysis of the
folk tales prevalent in a sample of fifty-two different
cultures. Their aim was to relate the achievement-
oriented behaviour and the socialisation practices of

these groups. The achievement-oriented practices of socialization were classified into four categories : (a) positive training (i.e., rewarding the achievement-oriented behaviour and punishing the achievement-absent behaviour), (b) punishment for the absence of achievement oriented behaviour, (c) punishment for the presence of achievement-oriented behaviour, and (d) conflict in regard to achievement. The results showed that all the four indices correlated positively, though insignificantly, with the achievement-oriented behaviour. There was, however, a slight tendency toward a positive relationship between achievement and rigidity.

This study, instead of indicating a negative relationship between need Achievement and training in independence, suggested the hypothesis of methodological variations as a possible reason for its disagreement with the work of McClelland and Friedman (1952). The research of McClelland (1961) appeared as a kind of rejoinder to the work of Child, Storm and Veroff (1958). The achievement imagery as found in the folk lores and fairy tales of a number of countries—Ancient Greece, Spain (in the late Middle Ages), England, (from the Middle Ages to the time of Industrial Revolution) and the U.S.A. (from the Industrial Revolution to the modern period)—was related to the periods of progress and

decline (determined by the area of trade engaged in by
each country) in these nations. In the case of pre-
Incan Peru, however, the measure of n Achievement, instead
of from folk tales, was obtained by an analysis of the
vase designs according to the Aronson's Graphic Expression
Test (Aronson, 1958). The results of this exhaustive
research showed a positive relationship between need
Achievement and the periods of progress in these countries.

Dilating upon the conceptualizations of Max
Weber (1930), these findings were interpreted as showing
that the periods of progress indicated the enterpreneurial
behaviour, and the latter was a direct function of the
early training in independence which fostered risk taking
behaviour.

In addition to the child rearing practices,
the need for Achievement has also been studied, as a
function of some occupational variables (e.g. Rosen (1956),
Douvan (1956), Mahone, (1960); Burnstein, Moulton and
Liberty (1963); Littig and Yeracaris, (1965)).

Rosen (1956) envisaged n Achievement as a psy-
chocultural dimension involving what he described as
the achievement motivation and the value orientations.
The former implied the achievement-oriented behaviour.
A sample of 120 boys drawn from the different social
strata were administered the TAT type test of n Achieve-
ment for measuring achievement motivation and a ques-

tionnaire to study the value orientations. The results showed that the subjects who belonged to the higher social strata had a significantly greater amount of need Achievement than those who came from the lower strata. This study also supported the general pattern of relationship between n Achievement and the child rearing practices reported by various investigators (Brown, 1953; Winterbottom, 1958; Nutall, 1964) by finding out that the children of the middle class families were more prone to the training in an achievement value system to work hard and plan properly with a view to deriving feeling of eventual success. This last observation is brought out clearly also by Douvan (1956).

Douvan (1956) hypothesized that because of a greater stress on accomplishment and an earlier demand on independence the middle class children should show a greater amount of the need for achievement. She observed that the possibility of receiving a material reward made a significant increase in the achievement striving of the working class children while it did not do so in case of the middle class children. This could be interpreted as meaning that the initial amount of need Achievement is higher in the middle class persons and does not offer further possibility of variations under conditions where achievement is a means to an end (material reward in this case) rather than an end in itself.

The study by Mahone (1960) further confirmed the

realistic orientation found in the people with a high
need for Achievement. The subjects who had a greater
fear of failure than the tendency to approach success
were reported to be unrealistic in their vocational
aspiration.

In another investigation, Burnstein, Coulton
and Liberty (1963) noted that the persons who were high
on the need Achievement and achievement values showed
a greater preference for those jobs which involved less
prestige but required a high degree of excellence. Simi-
larly, those who were low on n Ach preferred the jobs
which offered more prestige and demanded less excellence.

Littig and Yeracaris (1965) reported a posi-
tive relationship between the need for Achievement and
occupational mobility. The occupational mobility was
measured by finding out the occupation of the father
(in case of the male subjects) and occupation of the
husband (in case of the female subjects) in terms of
the white-collar versus blue-collar jobs.

(ii) NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND RISK TAKING BEHAVIOUR :

Much work seems to have been done in the area
of need Achievement and risk taking behaviour.

Lowell's study reported in McClelland et al (1953)
failed to demonstrate any relationship between n
Achievement and level of aspiration and Atkinson (1958)
reported that there was a low but insignificant relation-

ship between the two. Atkinson and Feather (1966)
systematically formulated a theory of achievement moti-
vation and risk taking behaviour in the context of a
large number of studies made during the recent years on
the level of aspiration, persistence, and subjective
probability.

McClelland's work (McClelland, 1958) on risk
taking behaviour in children showed that in a ring-peg
situation, subjects with high need Achievement tended
to stand somewhere in the middle range of the distance
from the peg where the chances of succeeding were in the
neighbourhood of fifty percent. The children with low
n Achievement either stood very close or far away from
the target. Similar trends were also observed in two
other measures of risk taking behaviour, namely, the tilting
maze task, and the dot connection task, (McClelland,1958).

In a related study Atkinson (1958) measured the
level of performance as a function of the varying proba-
bility of winning a monetary reward. The probabili-
ties ranged from 1/20 to 3/4 through 1/3 and 1/2. On a
sample of 124 female subjects, he found that the involve-
ment in performance was highest when the degree of
probability was 1/2, i.e. fifty per cent.

These two studies could be seen as empirical
validation of the theoretical model of risk taking be-
haviour developed by Atkinson (1957) who held that the
risk taking was determined by (1) the incentive value of

the goal, (ii) the expectation that the attainment of
goal was possible, and (iii) the motive operating in the
individual in a situation. This theory was further deve-
loped in a comprehensive form (Atkinson, 1964).

Apart from and in addition to providing an integ-
rated theory for conceptualizing the relationship between
the need Achievement and the risk taking behaviour,
Atkinson and McClelland (Atkinson, 1957, 1958; McClelland,
1958, 1961, 1964) brought out a readily available and
empirically verifiable concept of subjective probability
as a dependent variable of the achievement motivation.
The workers who studied these hypotheses empirically include
Atkinson, Bastian, Earl, and Litwin (1960); Atkinson
and Litwin (1960), Murstein (1963, Brody (1963), and
Easter and Murstein (1964).

The study by Atkinson et al (1960) could be
seen as a replication of an earlier work (Atkinson, 1957).
It investigated the relationship between the need for
Achievement, goal setting behaviour, and the probability
preferences for imaginary bets which were equated for
expected monetary value but varying in the probability
of winning. Here again, subjects with high n Achievement
preferred a risk involving 50-50 chances of losing or
winning.

In another study, Atkinson and Litwin (1960)
reported that the persons with a stronger motive for
success (Ms) than a motive for failure (Mf) preferred
the tasks of an intermediate level of difficulty.

Murstein's work (1963) demonstrated the relationship between expectancy of reward and achievement performance on an arithmetic test and a thematic test. Three groups of 20 subjects each competed for a monetary reward for which the probability of success varied for each of the three groups : .1, .5, and .9. It was observed that there was a greater manifestation of the need for Achievement in the group which had the winning probability of 0.5 than for the groups with 0.1 and 0.9 probabilities.

Brody (1963) too supported these observations by finding out that the subjects scoring high on need Achievement and low on test anxiety made their decisions more frequently in the middle quartiles of the distance in a risk taking task.

Finally, there is the work by Easter and Murstein (1964). On three groups of 20 subjects each, a significantly greater amount of need for Achievement was projected by the group which was told that fifty per cent of its members may receive a cash reward for writing creative stories, than the group which was told that the top 10 per cent of its members may win the prize and the group where no probability level was indicated.

(iii) NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS :

The personality characteristics of the persons

with a high amount of need Achievement have been reported
by various workers in the field, McClelland et al (1953),
McClelland, (1964), Groesbeck, (1953), and Charles,(1967).

All these researches pointed out that an indi-
vidual possessing a higher need for Achievement is
different from the one who has a low n Ach insofar as
the person with high need Achievement (a) was realistic
in goal setting behaviour, (b) wanted to have a feeling
of responsibility in his tasks, and (c) was in a constant
need of the concrete results of his performance.

The study by Morgan reported in McClelland et al
(1953) aimed at a quantitative comparison of the academic
achievers and the academic non-achievers. He reported
that the former obtained a significantly higher score
on a six-picture measure of the need for Achievement.
It must, however, be added here that a positive relation-
ship between the need Achievement and scholastic achieve-
ment would be positive provided the scholastic aptitude
of the subjects was held as constant (McClelland et al,1953).

McClelland et al (1953) compared the subjects
with high and low n Achievement in a number of specific
behaviour areas such as the response output, level of
aspiration, perception and thought, memory, and the
Rorschach responses. The persons with high need Achieve-
ment wrote a significantly greater number of words in
an essay they were asked to write than those who were
low on n Ach. The findings about the level of aspiration

have already been mentioned in the preceding section.
The same essay, mentioned above, when analysed in terms
of the various psychogrammatical categories, revealed
that the subjects with high n Achievement had more fre-
quently used abstract nouns, ego references and anti-
cipatory tenses, while the persons with low n Ach made
a more frequent use of negations and dependent clauses.
On the Rorschach Test, because of the varying number
of responses from each subject, only the first response
to each card was used in the scoring of the responses.
It was found that the subjects with high n Ach on the
whole produced more responses than those with the low n
Achievement. The former also gave a greater number of
M responses.

McClelland (1964) in "The Roots of Consciousness",
described the characteristics of the people who have a
higher need for Achievement. Persons with a high need
Achievement were found to have a liking for situations
in which they could take the responsibility for finding
solutions to various problems. They also took "calculated
risks" by undertaking the tasks lying in an intermediate
range of difficulty. And finally, the people with high
n Achievement wanted a "concrete feedback" of their per-
formance to assess how well were they doing in a situation.
In addition to these main qualities of persons scoring
high on need Achievement, McClelland described some other

characteristics of such people. "They like to travel, they are willing to give up one bird in the hand to get two in the bush, and they prefer experts to friends as working partners." (McClelland, 1964, p.30-31).

Groesbeck's work (Groesbeck, 1958) aimed at discovering the personality correlates of people who possessed varying amount of the need for achievement and the need for Affiliation. The subjects who were high on both these needs were found to be (a) conscientious, honest, unselfish, (b) serious, accepting responsibilities, (c) possessing a sense of social responsibility, and (d) were liked very much among the peers. On the other hand, the individuals who were high on need Achievement and low on need for Affiliation (a) seemed to possess a facility for working with people, (b) were rated by peers as having a minimum persistent inner tension and (c) showed a "preference for working with others for their presumed good".

Lastly, a mention may be made of Charles (1967) who, in a popular article, elucidated the characteristics of an achieving personality. People with high need for Achievement "stretch themselves a little" in their goal setting behaviour.

In addition to the studies pointing out some of the personality characteristics of the persons with a high need for achievement, workers in the field have also investigated some of the specific personality qualities as a function of the need Achievement. These include

the studies on n Achievement and self-concept (Martire,1956; Sinha, 1967), and n Ach and aesthetic preference (Knapp, 1958), and n Ach and the perception of time (Knapp, 1958a).

The need for Achievement seems to foster a greater amount of discrepancy between the Self and the Ideal Self images. At least that is, what is reported by Martire (1956), who found that in a sample of 56 male college students tested under both Neutral and the Aroused conditions, the subjects with a high n Ach obtained a significantly greater ego-ideal discrepancy than those who were low on n Ach. These results are in line with the Weinberger's study in 1951 mentioned in Atkinson (1958) who reported a general dissatisfaction with the self in case of the persons with a high need for Achievement, Martire (1956) observed that the subjects with a high n Ach were showed a significantly greater self-ideal discrepancy on the following achievement oriented traits : intelligence, initiative, creativeness, motivation, and general success.

Sinha (1967), however, found out just the reverse of the results reported by Martire, Studying the relationship between self-estimate, ego-ideal discrepancy, and the verbalized expression of need for Achievement namely the Achievement Value (V-Ach) on a sample of 100 university students, Sinha (1967) reported that the high V-Ach group

obtained significantly lesser amount of ego-ideal
discrepancy than the low y-Ach group on the following
traits : sociability, flexibility, intellectual ability,
leadership, and acceptance of others.

There are two points to be noted to clarify
the apparent confusion between the results reported by
Martire (1956) and Sinha (1967). Both these studies
used different measures and concepts of the achievement
motive. Martire's n Ach and Sinha's y-Ach,though similar,do
not imply the same idea of achievement motivation. More-
over, as mentioned earlier, the traits on which the ego-
ideal discrepancies are reported were different in both
the studies. In another study,persons with high n Ach
estimated themselves high on the dimension of persever-
ance and low on intellectual ability (Mukherjee, 1965).

Leibmann's distinction between "hard" colours
(e.g. red) and "soft" colours (e.g. blue), (c.f. Knapp,
1958), led to an interesting finding that persons with
high n Ach being desirous of overpowering the environment
had a preference for a soft colour namely blue, while
those who were low on n Ach and are desirous of being
overpowered by the environment, preferred a hard colour,
namely red (Knapp, 1958).

(iv) NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT :

An important study in this area was made by
Morgan reported in McClelland et al (1953) who found that
if the scholastic aptitude was held as constant there

was a positive relationship between the $\underline{n}$ Achievement and the school grades.

Similar results could also be seen in King (1958). In a study of the relationship between their school performance and their scores on the TAT, three groups of subjects from a Navy submarine school showed that those who were dropped had a lower score on the need for Achievement.

Littig and Yeracaris (1963) too, on a sample of 190 men and 206 women, reported a positive relationship between $\underline{n}$ Achievement and the academic grades. They, however, noted that this was true only in the case of male subjects.

Running parallel to the studies, some of which have been mentioned above, the evidence pointed out a negative relationship between need for Achievement and the academic performance (Cole and Zubok, 1962; Sarason, 1963).

It is advisable, as pointed by the Morgan's study (in McClelland et al, 1953) that the researches involving the relation of need Achievement to the school performance must aim at controlling the variable of scholastic aptitude.

(v) NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND BEHAVIOURAL ABERRATIONS :

The need for Achievement has also influenced the study of the phenomena in the field of psychopathology. Lichtenberg (1957) described a schizophrenic patient

whose break down followed experiences of apparent
success. It is explained by postulating a schizophrenic's
characteristic inability to withstand failure. Prognosis
of schizophrenic cases may be facilitated if the clini-
cian appreciates the unconscious implications of n Achieve-
ment, namely a behavioural upsetting follows the inabi-
lity to derive satisfaction from success.

In another study, Caron and Wallach (1958)
reported that high n Ach was seemingly related to "oppressive-
ly" reacting individuals while low n Ach goes with the
"repressively" reacting individuals in stress situations.

The affective nature of n Ach obtained further
support from the findings that the manic-depressive
patients obtained significantly higher scores than the
control subjects on the Value Achievement Scale, (Spielberger,
Parker, and Becker, 1963).

Both among the retarded and normal children,
Botha and Close (1964) reported a positive correlation
between n Ach and the speed of reading.

In the field of psychopathology and n Ach it
may be worthwhile to study the progress in psychotherapy
experienced by the patient as a function of his n Ach
and to relate this to the n Ach of the therapist. This
could also be related to the goal setting behaviour,
because both the patient and the therapist set up certain
goals to be achieved during the therapeutic situation.

(vi) <u>NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND ANXIETY</u> :

Perhaps the maximum amount of inconsistency may be found in the studies involving n Achievement and level of anxiety. According to many workers there is no relationship between the two (e.g. Bendig, 1957; Atkinson and Litwin, 1958). Others reported a negative relationship, (e.g. Raphelson, 1957; Kausler and Trapp, 1958; Raphelson and Moulton, 1958).

One probable explanation of these opposite findings in regard to the relationship between the need for Achievement and the level of anxiety seemingly lies in the nature of anxiety that is being measured and related to n Achievement. The workers so far have related n Achievement either to the manifest anxiety (e.g. Bendig, 1957; Kausler and Trapp, 1958) or to the test anxiety (e.g. Atkinson and Litwin, 1958; Raphelson,1957; Raphelson and Moulton, 1958). Kausler and Trapp (1958) and Bendig (1957) reported a negative relationship between the n Achievement and Manifest Anxiety. Raphelson (1957) and Raphelson and Moulton (1958) observed a negative relationship between the need for Achievement and Test Anxiety. Anxiety, being an emotional state with dread as its outstanding quality, upto a certain extent functions as a motivating factor. It is only after crossing a certain limit, varying from individual to individual, that it acts as an inhibitory force. The former is termed as normal anxiety while the latter is called pathological

anxiety (Cameron, 1963). It may be predicted that
when the two groups of individuals matched for all re-
levant variables excepting anxiety which may be normal
in the one group, and pathological in the other, are
compared, there would be positive relationship between
the need Achievement and anxiety in the individuals with
normal level and a negative relationship among the in-
dividuals who are pathologically anxious.

(vii) NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT AND LEARNING :

The need for Achievement has also been studied
in relation to the problems of learning and memory (e.g.
Atkinson, 1953; Worell, 1960; Kausler and Trapp, 1958a;
Johnston, 1955). These researches pointed out that the
problem-solving situations differentiated significantly
between the subjects who were high and those who were low
on n Achievement.

Atkinson (1953) investigated the relationship
between need for Achievement and the recall of completed
and interrupted tasks. It was found that when the ins-
tructions increased the probability that the completed
and the incompleted tasks were indicative of personal
success and failure respectively the subjects who were
high on need Achievement recalled the incomplete tasks more
frequently than those who had a low amount of n Achieve-
ment.

Worell (1960) reported that the individuals who

scored high on the EPPS measure of need Achievement were
significantly superior to those who were low on it in
verbal learning situations.

Johnston's work (Johnston, 1955) demonstrated
the superiority of the group with high need Achievement
in learning an electric maze under neutral conditions.

Finally, Hausler and Trapp (1958a) observed that
in goal-setting behaviour on a learning task, the sub-
jects with a high amount of need Achievement obtained
significantly higher goal-discrepancy scores than the
subjects who were low on n Achievement.

SUMMARY OF THE REVIEW.

Summarizing the above researches one finds that
the n Ach was conceptualized as a social motive (McClelland
et al, 1953; McClelland, 1961, 1964; Atkinson, 1958,
1964; Brown, 1955) and as a variable determining an indi-
vidual's mode of dealing with his environment, (Knapp,
1958). A direct relationship between the need Achieve-
ment and the childhood training in independence is repor-
ted by a number of investigators (e.g. Winterbottom, 1958;
Rosen, 1962). The n Achievement was found to be a pro-
duct of the industrialized cultures and was positively
related to the enterpreneurial activities,(McClelland
et al, 1967, 1964; Kerekhoff, 1959; Rosen, 1959).

In the area of risk taking behaviour, persons

with a high need for Achievement showed a preference
for the tasks lying in an intermediate level of diffi-
culty (e.g. McClelland, 1958; Atkinson, 1958, 1964;
Litwin, 1961; Smith, 1963; Cameron and Meyers, 1966;
Littig, 1959; Atkinson et al, 1960; Murstein and
Collier, 1963; Brody, 1963; Easter and Murstein, 1964).

Studies of the personality characteristics
of the people with a high n Achievement showed them as
conscientious,   , responsible, free from emotional
tension, showing a preference to work with experts
rather than friends, fond of travelling, preferring
situations in which they could take personal responsi-
bility for solving problems etc. (e.g., McClelland, 1964;
Atkinson, 1964; Groesbeek, 1958).

In the area of n Ach and academic grades,
                  were
results found to be inconsistent. According to some
there was a positive relationship between the two. (e.g.
King, 1958; McClelland et al, 1953; Littig and Yeracaris,
1963; Caplehorn and Sutton, 1965). Other workers, how-
ever, reported a negative relationship. (Cole and Zubok,
1962; Sarason, 1963).

Investigators relating the need Achievement and
the problems of psychopathology reported (a) that a
schizophrenic's inability to tolerate failure could
explain his break down following experiences of apparent
success (Lichtenberg, 1957); (b) that a high amount of
n Ach was related to the "oppressively" reacting individuals

while the low n Ach goes with the "repressively" reacting
individuals in the stress situations (Carron and Wallach,
1958); (c) that both among the retarded and the normal
children there was a positive relationship between the
n Ach and the speed of reading, (Botha and Close, 1964).

Evidence seemed to favour the view that the
need for Achievement facilitates the process of learning,
(e.g., Worell, 1960, Van Zandt and Himmelstein, 1961;
Sampson, 1963; Burdick, 1964, Kight and Sassenrath, 1966).
Bendig (1958) and Chubb and Barch (1960), however, found
no such relationship between the two variables.

In the field of need for Achievement and Mani-
fest Anxiety, Kausler and Trapp (1958) reported a nega-
tive correlation between the two. Raphelson (1957) and
Raphelson and Moulton (1958) observed a negative relation
between the n Ach and Test Anxiety. Bendig (1957) and
Atkinson and Litwin (1958) noted no relationship between
the n Ach and anxiety.

All these researches have contributed towards an
understanding of the concept of n Ach as a significant
social motive, the traces of which might also be discerned
in the Indian philosophy.

NEED FOR ACHIEVEMENT IN THE INDIAN PHILOSOPHY

The Indian system of thought is dominated by
an analysis and description of the various ways of making

one's life meaningful and goal-oriented. The aim of
life is said to be (a) the realization of the Light,
(the Vedas), (b) the attainment of Atman or "aham",
(the Upnishads), (c) the achievement of the Bliss
(Samkara-Vedanta),(d) the attainment of liberation or
"moksha", (the Bhagvad Gita), and (e) the realization
of Nirvana (Buddhism). These aims are derived from a
set of postulates on which Indian philosophy is based,
namely, "...the immortality of soul, the possibility
of a final redemption, the law of Karma and rebirth,
the path of morality, self-purification, and knowledge
as ultimately leading to emancipation..." (Das Gupta, 1961,
p.7). These beliefs seem to have provided certain
standards of behaviour. Actions and deeds are to be evalua-
ted against these standards. Performance of acts
according to these standards leads to a sense of satis-
faction. The law of karma elucidates this point at length.

The most exhaustive treatment of the karma
doctrine is to be found in the Bhagvad Gita. According
to the law of karma, actions must lead to their fruits
either in this or the life hereafter. "Our present life,
with all its varied experiences, is the result of actions
performed in the past life, and the actions of the present
life will likewise determine future ones in accompaniment
with the past actions not yet exhausted." (Das Gupta, 1961,
p.56). A feeling of achievement, or pride in accomplish-
ment, thus tends to manifest itself in the emotional response

of a person to what he is : here and now. What he
is, is a consequence of his past deeds. He enjoys
the fruits of his performance in the past. A feeling
of having done a job well is a direct function of
the degree to which his present life satisfies the
standards of a good life. His concern is with the
outcome of his acts, a feeling of pride or remorse
in relation to his past performance. He is charac-
terized by an affective state in relation to his past
performance.)

The performance of acts in this life is a
preparation for attaining a good life hereafter. The
goal is seemingly too remote to be concretized. His
concern here is to do good actions so that they may
fructify into a good life. The "goodness" of an act
is governed by a set of standards. These standards
must be satisfied to qualify an act to be termed as
"good". A person's primary concern is to do a job
"well"; "well" insofar as it fulfils the standards
laid down in the texts.

It follows from the above that the idealof
need for Achievement finds expression in the Indian
system of thought at two levels : the level of so-
called past n Ach and the level of so-called present
n Ach. The level of past n Achievement brings out
a sense of achievement in relation to the acts done
in the past life, the fruits of which are evident in

one's present life. The level of present n Achievement guarantees a feeling of accomplishment insofar as one's present actions satisfy the standards of good deeds.

In addition to the past and the present oriented concepts of need achievement outlined above, the n Achievement is also slightly different in the Indian philosophy from the way it has been conceptualized by the Western writers. This difference lies in the nature of standards of performance.

In the Western idea of the n Ach, the standards of performance are said to be external. The feeling of pride in accomplishment is of course a personal feeling of the individual. However, the standards of behaviour seem to lie in the world outside. According to the Indian system of thought, on the other hand. these standards are relatively internal and lie within the individual. Of course, in this case too, the sense of satisfaction is a personal feeling of the individual.

The emphasis on the external standards in the Western idea of need Achievement and on the internal standards in the case of n Ach in Indian philosophy may be due to the difference in the goals of these two variations of n Achievement. In one case, the stress is on doing better than the others. The need

for Achievement thus becomes an outgrowth of competitive and industrialized cultures. This has been pointed out by different workers in the field (McClelland, 1961, 1964; Kerakhoff, 1959; Rosen, 1959). In the Indian concept of need Achievement, the stress is not on doing an act better than others, but on doing it to attain the Light, the Liberation, or the Bliss. The feeling of Light or the attainment of Bliss is a purely personal experience and does not entail any idea about having experienced it better than the others (competitiveness).

On a closer examination, however, even this difference between the external and the internal standards seems to disappear. The attainment of Bliss or Liberation could only be had though certain acts, the standards of which are laid down by those who are claimed to have achieved these goals. Because of its purely subjective character, a feeling of Bliss is ensured by becoming a devotee, disciple, or follower of the someone who has "attained" it or who is closer to it. The "Guru" (Master) has to be superior to the "Sisya" (Follower). Performance of acts by the follower is evaluated by the master. A follower or the sisya wants to do as well as his Guru or at least better than the other followers (competitiveness). In regard to the Western concept of n Ach also the

cues for arousing n Ach need not always be external. According to Cofer and Appley (1964), these cues could be internal also and might function in the form of one's thought processes.

It may be concluded that the effort made here to bring out an Indian concept of need for Achievement though apparently reflecting a reconciliation of science (the "Western" n Ach) and religion (the "Indian" n Ach) does not rule out the possibility that the presence of the n Ach may also be observed in the non-industrialized cultures.

CHAPTER TWO

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Individuals tend to organize their experiences in terms of the goals. They structure a situation according to the end-results involved in it. Like many others, a person with a high n Ach when placed in any situation, analyses it in terms of the goals and the sub-goals it entails. Every behaviour, he makes is directed towards the attainment of a goal or sub-goal. But to all goals there is always added one more - "n Achievement". This is so because he is the one who enjoys not only just achieving but also a satisfaction of achievement. Every time he attains a goal, he gets both of these satisfactions. He tends to perceive tasks in terms of how much "n-satisfaction" can be obtained from doing them. This is because he is concerned about the anticipated value of the satisfaction that would follow his accomplishment. If a task happens to be very easy, he would hardly think of doing it, not because he finds it below his capacities but because by doing it he would not have a feeling of pride for having done something worthwhile. Similarly, if the task happens to be very difficult, he may keep his hands off it for the simple reason of risking his feeling of accomplishment. Thus the point of "how much n-satisfaction" can be obtained by doing a job is what Atkinson terms as the "incentive value" of the goal (Atkinson,1964).

There are, then, two important things for
a person with high n Achievement demands. Goals
which are very easy to attain give him little satis-
faction because he can hardly have a sense of achieve-
ment from attaining something very easy. On the other
hand, goals which are very difficult to achieve he may
attain only occasionally. But the chances of attain-
ing very difficult goals are small, and so are the
chances of having a sense of n Achievement. That
characterizes a person with a high n Ach is that he
chooses the goals of intermediate difficulty relative
to his own capacities. His goals are neither too
easy so as to have a minimum sense of achievement nor
too difficult which would reduce the chances of getting
n Achievement satisfaction. He sets his goals within
a moderate range of difficulty to obtain a maximum
amount of sense of achievement (McClelland, 1958;
Atkinson, 1958; 1964; Smith, 1965).

McClelland's study (McClelland, 1958) on chil-
dren, demonstrated that persons with high n Achievement
stood somewhere in the middle range for throwing a ring
round a peg. Atkinson's work (Atkinson, 1958) also
showed that the highest level of performance was reached
when the probability of winning a monetary reward was
.50 than when it was .05 or .75. And finally, Smith
(1965) observed that the subjects in whom the motive
to approach success was stronger than the motive to

48

avoid failure preferred a significantly greater number
of puzzles of an intermediate level of difficulty than
those in whom the motive to avoid failure was stronger
than the motive to approach success.

A person with high n Achievement is so much
concerned with attainment that he is very sensitive
to the role played by chance in the attainment of
goals. The degree of sense of achievement is adversely
affected if he realised that it was chance, and not
his efforts, which helped him achieve his goal. An
individual with high n Ach therefore prefers situation
in which the outcome is determined by his efforts,
not chance. If he wins one thousand rupees at a
roulette table, the sense of achievement is much less
than if he earned profits of the same amount in a
business deal. In the former, it is sheer chance,
whereas in the latter the outcome is due to his
excellence, ingenuity, business skill, or hard work.

McClelland (1964) outlined the salient per-
sonality characteristics of the individuals possessing
a high amount of need Achievement. Such persons seem
to like the situations of work in which they could
take personal responsibility for the outcome; they
tend to set up goals lying within a moderate range of
difficulty; and want a definite and regular informa-
tion on the outcome of their performance. In addition,

these persons like to travel and prefer to work with experts in the field rather than their friends.

The aim of this study was to find out how do the individuals with a high need for Achievement differ from those who are low on n Ach in regard to some of the personality characteristics. It was considered advisable to select a few personality dimentions in terms of which these two groups of individuals could be compared.

It was outside the scope of this investigation to compare the groups of individuals along a sufficiently large number of dimensions. It was, therefore, decided to select a few from amongst many for comparing the individuals scoring high and low on n Achievement. Following the selection of some relevant dimensions, the next problem would consist in selecting the appropriate variables measuring the dimension in question.

The dimensions and the variables selected for the purpose of the present research were as follows :

Dimension A : Human Relations.

The dimension of human relations is used here as epitomised in certain personality characteristics. Living in a mutually dependent society all of us tend to establish and maintain various kinds of relationships with our fellow beings. Development of such

relationships stems from the fact of interdependence
in our way of life. Individuals differ markedly
from each other in the manner in which they relate
themselves to each other. Some build up strong
emotional relationships. Others are pre-occupied with
maintaining numerous, but not too close, social rela-
tionships.

Because the need for Achievement is a social
motive, it was decided to select the realm of social
relations for comparing the subjects who are high and
low on n Ach. But social relationships cover a wide
area of behaviour patterns. It was thus necessary
to further specify this field. One of the significant
ways in which social relations are built up is that
of dominance versus submission. In a dyadic inter-
action it is one of the two who plays a more important
role than the other. Such an individual always
looks at others as means of satisfying his needs for
dominance. He would prefer to move in situations and
meeting people where he can exert pressure on them,
use his authority, or control others. The second
type of individuals are those who care little about
being overpowered by others; who do gain benefits
by being dependent upon others. Such persons show a
preference for situations in which they estimate a
possibility of developing dependent relationships with

others. They derive satisfaction from being looked after and controlled by others. In between these two types, are those who enjoy building up a cooperative tone in their inter-personal relationships. Such individuals are fond of sharing with others. They do not have a desire to control others nor do they desire to be dependent upon others. Unlike the first two kinds, these individuals do not use others as means to an end; as means to satisfy their desire for dominance or submission.

Relating these three kinds of individuals to n Achievement, one discovers that a person who tries for and enjoys a sense of having done a good job is not significantly interested in dominating others. Nor does he expect or like to be dependent upon them. He is not interested in people as tools for seeking satisfaction of dominance and/or submission. Such kind of a person establishes a cooperative pattern of relationship with those in the environment. As against this, an individual with low n Achievement is much interested in others as tools for getting satisfaction. He then enjoys being dominated by others. He wants to overpower others. He varies on the extremes of the dominance - submission continuum. Individuals with high n Achievement may therefore be distributed in the normal bell-shaped pattern along the dominance - sub-

mission axis. On the other hand those who are low on $\underline{n}$ Ach may show a bi-modal distribution of this measure.

In view of this, it was hypothesised that the individuals scoring high on $\underline{n}$ Achievement would score low on a measure of dominance -submission, and vice versa.

As a measure of dominance - submission, it was decided to use the California F Scale.

Dimension B : Individual-Environment Relations.

An individual's transactions with his environment are markedly affected by a dimension embodded in the variable of frustration. Frustration is a situation in which a person's motivated plan is prevented from reaching a state of consummation. It was assumed that frustration can be viewed as an anticipatory reaction following a goal setting situation. As soon as an individual formulates a goal to be attained, he introduces into it his past successes and failures. Thus, reaction to the goal set at any given time is in the form of success and failure which the individual brings into foreground on the basis of his past experiences. If his past goal attainments have had a sufficient share of success, he anticipates success in his new endeavour too. If his past experience has had frequent failures, he would expect little success

in his present goal attaining attempts. It was further
held that the failures created frustration in the
individuals.

In the context of n Achievement, it was noted
that individuals who were high on it tended to place
their 'to-be-attained goals', in an intermediate range
of difficulty and thus did not experience frequent
failures. This is also suggested by studies (McClelland,
1958; Atkinson, 1958, 1964; Feather, 1964; Smith, 1965)
already reviewed in the earlier chapter. Individuals
with low n Ach. on the other hand, had a tendency to
set their goals which were either too easy or too
difficult to achieve. They did not thus obtain a sense
of achievement. It was thought that frustration could
therefore constitute a useful variable for comparing
the extreme groups on n Achievement.

Of the various indices of frustration such as
the intensity of frustration, frustration tolerance
and reactions to frustration, it was proposed to select
the reactions to frustration as an index for studying
the individuals scoring high and low on n Achievement.
It was expected that these two types of persons would
react differently to frustrating experiences.
Since a person who was high on n Ach set his goals
which were moderately difficult to achieve, he would
tend to stress the obstacles he came across while
heading towards the goal. A person with low n Ach.

on the other hand, is concerned least with a satis-
faction of attainment, he may tend to attribute failure
to his inability to attain rather than to his inabi-
lity to set the right kind of goal.

It was postulated that <u>subjects scoring high
on n Achievement would tend to react by giving
obstacle-dominance type of reactions whereas ego-
defensive reactions may characterize those who are
low on n Achievement.</u>

The Madras P-F Study* was used to test this
hypothesis.

Dimension C : Ego Measure.

If a person's ego can be conceived as that
part of personality which mediates between his inter-
nal and external pressures and tensions then the ego
of high and low <u>n</u> Achievers should be organized along
different principles. An individual's interactions
with his environment are determined by two main fac-
tors. One is his evaluation of the specific target
in the environment to which he reacts and the other
is the evaluation of his own self. The evaluation
of his self is guided by his past experiences. This
self-evaluation plays an important role in organizing
his experiences as well as his relations with the
environment. It affects the evaluation and final

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*Information about this test is given in Chapter 5.

acceptance or rejection of the target or the goal to be achieved. It follows then that the individual with a firm and unified self-concept would approach, select and deal with his goals differently than the one whose ideas about his own self are not crystallized.

As mentioned in the beginning of this Chapter, persons high on n Achievement have a tendency to organize themselves in terms of goals and sub-goals. Their sensitivity to the environment functions in terms of the targets to be hit. Those with low n Achievement are not goal-oriented and target-centred. The two types of individuals may therefore differ along the dimension of ego which may be measured by the variable of self-evaluation.

It was predicted that the self concept of persons with high n Ach would be more unified and integrated as compared to that of persons with low n Ach. To be more specific the discrepancy scores (obtained by subtracting the rating on private self from the rating on social self) of high n Ach individuals, would be lower than the corresponding scores of the ones possessing a low amount of n Ach.

It was further hypothesized that individuals possessing high n Ach would on the whole have lower mean ratings. The reason why we expected this relationship was that persons who are high on n Achievement, with a view to avoiding fear of failure and increasing

the chances of sense of achievement, would tend to set up their goals in proportion to their abilities. They would prefer to err on the safer side by under-estimating themselves.

The Self-Concept Scale developed by Sinha and Singh (Singh, 1965)* was used to obtain a measure of this variable.

Dimension D : Comfort-Discomfort.

Individuals who engage in a goal-oriented activity and feel confident of attaining the goals may experience different emotional states, including a state of anxiety. Anxiety, however, would be more characteristic of a neurotic individual.

In case anxiety overpowers an individual, it simply means that he is not sure of attaining the goal. The fear of failure (f Failure) is greater than the need for success (Ns) in such an individual.

A person who is generally anxious would find that anxiety as an emotional state pervades his goal-directed activities. This determines a kind of basic attitude with which he would look at things and orga-nize himself. The anxious person encourages the influence of doubt about attaining his goal. The non-anxious individual, on the other hand, feels reason-ably certain about his goal attainments.

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*See Chapter 3 for details of this Scale.

The person who has high n Achievement is the
one who has a minimum fear of failure for the simple
reason that he sets his goals which are of moderate
difficulty and are thus certain to be achieved. This
is not so in the case of an individual who is low on
n Ach. He sets his goals which are on the extremes of
the difficulty-scale. He either has no fear of failure
or has too much of it.

It may then be postulated that anxiety and n
Achievement would be inversely related to each other.
That is, individuals scoring high on n Achievement would
score low on measure of anxiety and vice versa.

Sinha W.A. Self-Analysis Form*was selected
as a measure of anxiety.

THE RORSCHACH AND THE TAT CORRELATES OF N ACHIEVEMENT

In spite of the precision, objectivity, and
communicability that characterize most of the objective
measures of personality, there is still a good seg-
ment of the personality structure which is amenable
only to the projective methods of personality assess-
ment. It is not the question of which of the objective
or the projective approaches is a better way of under-
standing personality simply because both of these
measure personality at the two different levels. One
is the level of conscious functioning where the individual

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*This test is described in detail in Chapter 3.

is aware of what he is. The other is the level of
the operation of the unconscious. The individual is
completely or at least considerably oblivious of this
facet of his personality. Both these levels are
supplementary to each other and are necessary for a
comprehensive understanding of an individual's per-
sonality system.

Amongst the various projective tests of per-
sonality, the Rorschach Ink Blot Test and the Thematic
Apperception Test are of great importance and value
insofar as both of them aim at studying personality
as a whole unlike many other tests (such as the Rosenzweig
Picture Frustration Study or the Sentence Completion
Test) which are devised to bring forth a specific area
of behaviour.

The Rorschach Test provides an assessment of
personality by bringing out its various components
and the way these are interrelated among themselves.
It is a test of the structure of personality and the
balance that exists between the cognitive and the
affective dimensions of personality system.

On the other hand, the Thematic Apperception
Test provides information in regard to the psychodyna-
mic content of the personality. It is precisely an
avenue to understand the thought processes and fantasy
of an individual and the way in which these are
influenced by and organized around the nucleus of needs

and desires of the individual.

It was with these considerations in mind
that the Rorschach Test and the TAT were used in this
study. In addition to the specific dimensions outlined
in the preceding section and the tests used to measure
them, it was also decided to administer these two tests
on the subjects. This was done with an expectation
that since the need for Achievement is not merely a
superficial characteristic of personality, but a speci-
fic and significant dimension of behaviour carrying with
it a definite style of life and a way of looking at
things, one could anticipate that the people with
varying amount of need for Achievement should
project themselves differently on these comprehensive
and multi-dimensional measures of personality.

The specific hypotheses developed in regard
to both these tests were as follows.

THE RORSCHACH INK BLOT TEST

In line with the observations of McClelland
and others (McClelland et al. 1953) the following hy-
potheses were postulated :

(1) The individuals with a high amount of need
for Achievement because of a greater task
involvement would give more of approach
responses (M and FM) and a lesser number
of the avoidant responses (F) than

those who were low on the n Achievement, and

(ii) The persons scoring high on the need Achievement would give a larger number of W's, thus reflecting their indifference towards conventionality and conservatism.

It may be mentioned here that because of the non-availability of the details about the popular responses on the Rorschach Test in Indian conditions, it was not possible to compare the criterion groups in terms of the non-popular W's.

(iii) Because of a greater amount of uncertainty and insecurity, subjects who possessed a low amount of n Achievement would give more D's and Dd's.

Total productivity on the Rorschach is indicative of the level of intelligence and social adjustment, both of which are likely to be related to n Achievement. It was expected that the subjects with a high need for Achievement would produce a greater number of responses than those who were low on n Ach.

It was further hypothesised that consistent with their preoccupation with the approach reactions, persons with a high need for Achievement would represent a rich inner life and an introversive pattern of perso-

nality by giving an M>C Experience Balance.

In view of a realistic relationship maintained by the individuals with a high n Achievement such persons were expected to give a normal relationship between the estimated capacities and the level of aspiration indicated by the W : M ratio (Klopfer, 1945).

THE THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST

The TAT, a measure of fantasy, provides an insight into the private world of an individual. The cards used for this study were : (a) 1 (boy and the violin); (b) 3 BM for males (huddled figure with a revolver on the floor), for males and 3 GF, (a woman with downcast head with an arm stretched forward against a wooden floor); (c) 6 BM (a short elderly woman and a man) for males, and 6 GF (a woman on the sofa looking at an older man with a pipe in his mouth) for females; (d) 8 BM (operation scene) for males, and 8 GF (a woman looking at another woman running along a beach) for females; (e) 12 M (hypnosis scene) for males, and 12 F (portrait of a young woman while a weird old woman is grimacing in the background) for females; (f) 13 MF (a youngman with downcast head besides a woman lying in bed); (g) 14 (silhouette of a man or woman against a bright window); (h) 17 BM (a naked man clinging to a rope in the act of climbing up or coming down) for male subjects, and 17 GF (a bridge over water, a girl

leaning over the railing, and tall buildings and
figures of men in the background) for the females;
and (i) 19 (weird picture of cloud formations over-
hanging a snow-covered cabin).

The vague nature of the TAT cards require an
individual to define the stimulus situation. Obviously,
he selects certain portions of a picture which he
structures and in doing so he reveals his habitual
modes of reactions to similar situations in real life,
(Henry, 1955).

Since the TAT stories in this study were analysed
according to the scoring system developed by Vorhaus
(1951), the hypotheses were formulated following this
scheme.

In terms of the Ways of Handling Material, it
was expected that the individuals with a high need for
Achievement would produce a greater number of stories
with a realistic theme, of a dynamic type, and lengthy
with more additions (because of being more creative)
and a lesser amount of ambivalence either on the part
of the narrator or the central figure.

In regard to the prevailing mood of the story,
the subjects with a high amount of n Achievement were
anticipated to write more stories of an exciting and
happy type and less of a drab, unhappy, and frustrating
type.

It was further expected that while depicting

the relationship between the central figure and the environment, the stories given by the group with high n Ach would predominantly show social and family relationships and would also perceive the situation as favourable in relation to the Central Figure.

And finally, in regard to the qualities ascribed to the Central Figure, it was anticipated that the traits like ambitious and successful would be more frequently attributed to the central figure in the stories of the persons with a high amount of need Achievement.

CHAPTER THREE

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The aim of all research is to discover functional relationships among a set of variables. Anticipating a causal connection, these variables are classified into the independent and the dependent variables. The former are treated as the causal variables while the latter may be known as the effect-variables. The typical investigation involves a study of the variations noted in the dependent variables as a function of the graded variations introduced by the researcher in the independent variables. The tenets of the scientific rigour require that the given variables be isolated and controlled as far as practicable, and not as far as possible (Fisher, 1951). The problem of isolating and controlling of variables offers less difficulty in case of the discrete variables than if one were dealing with the continuous variables. This is because the discrete variables provide clear-cut boundaries and thus the anticipated functional relationships could be verified by relating the cut-points of the independent variables and those of the dependent variables, e.g. relationship between sex and the membership of an organization. If, however, one is interested in the sex and the level of adjustment or anxiety, one could approach it in two ways : either to leave the variables undisturbed and study the relationship by appropriate statistical techniques or to introduce

cut-points in one or both of the variables. In the latter, it could be a convenient technique to divide the presence of the independent variable into two extremes : high and low, and then to study whether the amount of the dependent variable was different in these two extremes. Thus one might divide the sample into the two groups, one with high adjustment and the other with low adjustment, and see if these two groups varied in the level of their anxiety. This technique of studying functional relationships is more commonly known as the method of criterion analysis. The former may be termed as the method of continuous analysis. The usefulness of these two methods is relative to (a) the problem one is interested in, (b) the ease with which the variables could be conceptually defined, and of course, (c) the availability of the measuring devices.

The credit for developing the method of criterion analysis may be given to Eysenck (1950), who showed that it was a combination of the hypothetico-deductive method and the factor analysis. Whether or not it is so is something outside the scope of the present writing. It has, however, stood the test of time as shown by the researches that followed. Numerous personality studies have been conducted along the model of criterion groups, (e.g., Adorno et al, 1950, McClelland et al, 1953, Atkinson et al, 1960, Smith, 1965). In this method, one begins by selecting or

postulating a specified variable and obtains a measure
of this variable on a group of subjects. The latter
are then divided into two groups possessing a high
and a low amount of the variable in question. The
criterion groups, thus formed, are administered various
measures of the hypothesized correlates of the criterion-
variable. This reveals how far each of the dependent
variables is a function of the criterion variable.

In the area of social research, the method of
criterion analysis is used in the contrasting sample
design. "The rationale of the contrasting sample
design is that the effects or correlates of a variable
thought to be important can be most clearly seen if
situations are studied which provide the greatest
extremes in the presence of this independent variable."
(Campbell and Katona, 1953, p.24).

In line with the researches by Groesbeck (1958)
and Martire (1956), the present study too was conducted
by the method of criterion analysis. First, a measure
of need for Achievement was obtained from a group of
subjects. They were then classified into two extremes :
one which was high on n Achievement and the other which
was low on it. The criterion groups thus formed were
administered various measures of the hypothesized per-
sonality correlates of the need for Achievement : the
California F Scale, the Thematic Apperception Test,
(Card Nos. 1, 3BM or 3 GF, 6BM or 6GF, 8BM or 8GF,
12M or 12F, 13MF, 14, 17BM or 17GF, and 19), the Ror-

schach Ink blot Test, the Sinha W.A. Self-Analysis
Form (Sinha, 1961). The Self-Concept Scale, (Sinha
and Singh, 1965), and the Madras P-F Study (Muthayya,
1961).

FORMATION OF THE CRITERION GROUPS

A suitable test of n Achievement was needed
for forming the criterion groups in this study. There
were many tests to choose from, such as the McClelland's
TAT, (McClelland et al, 1953), the Edwards Personal
Preference Schedule, (Edwards, 1954), the Insight Test,
(French, 1958), and the Graphic Expression Test,
(Aronson, 1958).

It was decided to use the Graphic Expression
Test (Aronson, 1958) for classifying the subjects into
the extreme groups. The details of this test are as
follows. This test was selected mainly because it
takes less time than the McClelland's TAT measure of
n Ach, and being non-verbal, reduces the anxiety in
the subjects. Another reason for selecting the Graphic
Expression Test was its validity when correlated with
the McClelland's Test (Aronson, 1958).

GRAPHIC EXPRESSION TEST:

This test developed by Aronson (1958) aimed at
providing a non-verbal measure of the need for Achieve-
ment. It was devised to overcome the difficulties

involved in the verbal tests of need Achievement in
which the performance of the subjects was affected by
their verbal fluency and also the amount of anxiety
which some of them experienced in the tests situation.
Both these variables namely the verbal fluency and
the test anxiety tended to lower down the n Achievement
scores of the subjects.

The initial development of the test does not
seem to have emerged out of any theoretical frame of
reference. According to Aronson, "There were no parti-
cular hypotheses concerning the relation of n Achieve-
ment to graphic expression. The design of this study
was to discover empirical relationships between n
Achievement and various modes of graphic expression,
and then to test the validity of these relationships
in several cross-validating groups. After administering
the test to Group I, the drawings of the 13 subjects
above the median n Achievement score and of the 13 below
the median n Achievement score were segregated. A
content analysis was then performed, i.e., the drawings
were carefully examined for differences between the
'highs' and the 'lows'. The major distinction per-
ceived was that the drawings of the 'highs' contained
a preponderance of single, unattached, discrete lines,
while those of the 'lows' seemed more overlaid, fuzzier".
(Aronson, 1958; p.252).

VALIDITY OF THE TEST:

The Graphic Expression Test when correlated with the McClelland's TAT on four groups of subjects (Aronson, 1958) yielded coefficients of correlation between the TAT and the I-F score on the Graphic Expression Test of the value of .51 ($p < .05$), .54, and .33 ($p < .01$) for three groups. The number of cases in each group being 18, 51, and 75. The coefficient for the remaining group ($n = 26$) was .27 ($p > .05$).

In the same study, when tested for the internal consistency it was found that out of the twenty coefficients of correlation between the various indices of graphic expression, as many as fifteen were in the predicted direction and of these nine were statistically significant.

When the discrete-fuzzy scores of the graphic expression were correlated with the performance on the Lowell Scrambled Word Test (Aronson, 1958) the coefficient of correlation was .50 ($p < .05$). This was slightly higher than the relation between the Lowell's Test and the TAT measure of need for Achievement, namely, .46 ($p < .05$).

VALIDITY OF THE GRAPHIC EXPRESSION TEST IN
THE PRESENT RESEARCH :

The present study, as mentioned earlier used the Murray TAT as one of the dependent variables. The cards selected included 7BM and 8BM also. Since these

were the ones used also by McClelland et al (1953)
as a measure of need Achievement, it was considered
worthwhile to discover whether there was any rela-
tionship between the D-F scores on the Graphic Expression
Test and the n Achievement score on these two TAT
cards when scored according to the McClelland's tech-
nique (System C. in McClelland et al, 1953).

The number of cases available to study this
relationship was 18. This was because out of the
total sample of 65 cases for this study, 18 males were
classified as the subjects with high n Achievement
according to the D-F scores. Moreover, the corresponding
cards used for the female subjects, namely 7GF and
8GF do not arouse any achievement imagery in the sub-
jects. Therefore, the TAT stories of the female sub-
jects were not scored for n Achievement.

The coefficient of correlation between the
discrete-fuzzy scores and the n Ach scores on two TAT
cards (7BM and 8BM) of these 18 males was found to be
.18 ($p > .05$). The relationship, though in the predic-
ted direction, was statistically insignificant.

The reasons for the low correlation seem to
lie mainly in the instructions given for writing the
TAT stories, and in the small number of the sample.
As has already been pointed out, the TAT was not used
in this study for the formation of criterion groups.
Instead, it was used to find out whether the personality

pattern revealed by this test discriminated between the subjects scoring high and low on the Aronson's test. Consequently, the instructions for writing the stories in response to TAT cards were along the ones used by Murray (1943), to write as dramatic a story as possible and not the ones used by McClelland et al (1958) to write in terms of a set of four questions.

The instructions used by Murray (1943) read as follows :

"I am going to show you some pictures, one at a time. It is your task to tell me the story back of this picture—what is happening at the moment, what are the people feeling and doing, what led up to this, and how will it come out. In short, you make up a dramatic story about each picture, speaking your thoughts as they come..."(Murray, 1943).

On the other hand, the instructions used by McClelland et al (1953) were in terms of the following questions.

1. "What is happening ? Who are the persons ?

2. "What has led up to this situation—that is, what has happened in the past ?"

3. "What is being thought—what is wanted ? By whom ?

4. "What will happen ? What will be done ?" (McClelland et al, 1953, p.338).

The instructions given for writing the TAT
stories in the present study were as follows :

"This is a test of imagination. I am going to
show you some pictures one at a time and your task will
be to make a story, as dramatic as possible, about each
of the pictures. Describe (1) what has led up to the
event shown in the picture; (2) what is happening at
the moment; (3) what the characters are feeling and
thinking, and (4) what will be the outcome. Express
your thoughts as they come to you. You will be having
about five minutes to write each story."

While studying the effects of instructional
cues on the process of writing stories, McClelland et al
(1953) found that when the TAT was described as a
"test of creative intelligence", the subjects were mo-
tivated "to write correct, intelligent stories; that
is, writing a good, intelligent-sounding story was
apparently perceived as instrumental to the attainment
of an achievement goal. The result was a general
freezing up of the imaginative content of the stories
with numerous qualifications indicating the uncertainty
of subjects as to how to do well at the task in order
to succeed." (McClelland et al, 1953, p.210-211).

It seems, in the present research too, the
subjects were guided mainly by the initial sentence
of the instructions : "It is a test of imagination",
and thus tended to concentrate on producing as dramatic

a story as possible. It may, therefore, be concluded safely that in this study the low coefficient of correlation between the D-F scores and the TAT scores does not nullify the validity of the Aronson's test.

In addition to the instructional cues, the small size of the sample may be another reason for the low coefficient of correlation. Due to the sex variable, the TAT scores of the n Ach on female subjects were not available for inclusion in the computation of the coefficient of correlation.

In spite of being insignificant, the coefficient of correlation was found to be in the expected direction.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE TEST:

The photostat copies of the two figures of the Test of the size 8" x 8" were shown to the subjects for 1.5 seconds (approximately). They were given 2 minutes to draw each figure on a sheet of drawing paper (8½" x 11").

The administration of the test was done in groups varying in size from 3 to 5 subjects at a time. The instructions given were essentially the same as in Aronson (1958, p.251).

SCORING:

The figures drawn by the subjects were scored according to the system developed by Aronson (1958) in

terms of all the categories, namely, (a) Discrete-Fuzzy,
(b) Space, (c) Diagonal Configuration, (d) S-shaped,
and (e) Multi wave.

Although the figures drawn were scored in terms
of all the Aronson categories, the formation of the
extreme groups was done on the basis of Discrete-Fuzzy
(D-F) score only, because the D-F score correlated
highest with the TAT measure of $\underline{n}$ Achievement (Aronson,
1958), and also because the D-F score was found to be
a more valid measure of $\underline{n}$ Achievement than the other
Aronson categories (McClelland, 1961).

THE CRITERION GROUPS:

The D-F scores of the subjects are given in
Table 3.1. The scores ranged from -38 to 75 for males.
In case of females,scores ranged from -31 to 71. The
means were 13.87 (males) and 13.25 (females). The SD's
were 19.40 (males) and 18.60 (females). (See Table 3.2).

Table 3.1

DISTRIBUTION OF THE D-F SCORES

Scores	f (males) (n = 88)	f (females) (n = 68)
70...79	2	1
60...69	1	0
50...59	1	0
40...49	0	1
30...39	4	4
20...29	10	1
10...19	19	10
0... 9	25	14
-10...-1	14	17
-20...-11	9	11
-30...-21	1	8
-40...-31	2	1

Table 3.2

MEAN AND SD AND Q VALUES OF THE
D-F SCORES

M & SD	Ss Males	Females
Mean	13.87	13.25
SD	19.40	18.60
Q_1	-3.36	16.34
Q_3	-7.71	10.75

Figure 1 shows the distribution of D-F scores
for males and females. Both the distributions are
almost normal. The scores of the males are however
more widely distributed than those of the females.
Ogives representing the D-F scores of the subjects are
given in Figure 2.

The criterion groups were formed on the basis
of Q_1 and Q_3 values. All those scoring below Q_1 were
assigned to the Low n Ach Group and those above Q_3 to
the High n Ach Group. The Q_1 and Q_3 values for males
were -3.36 and 16.34 respectively. The corresponding
values for females were -7.71 and 10.75 (Table 3.2).

The average age of the subjects was 20.09 years
(males) and 18.99 years for females.
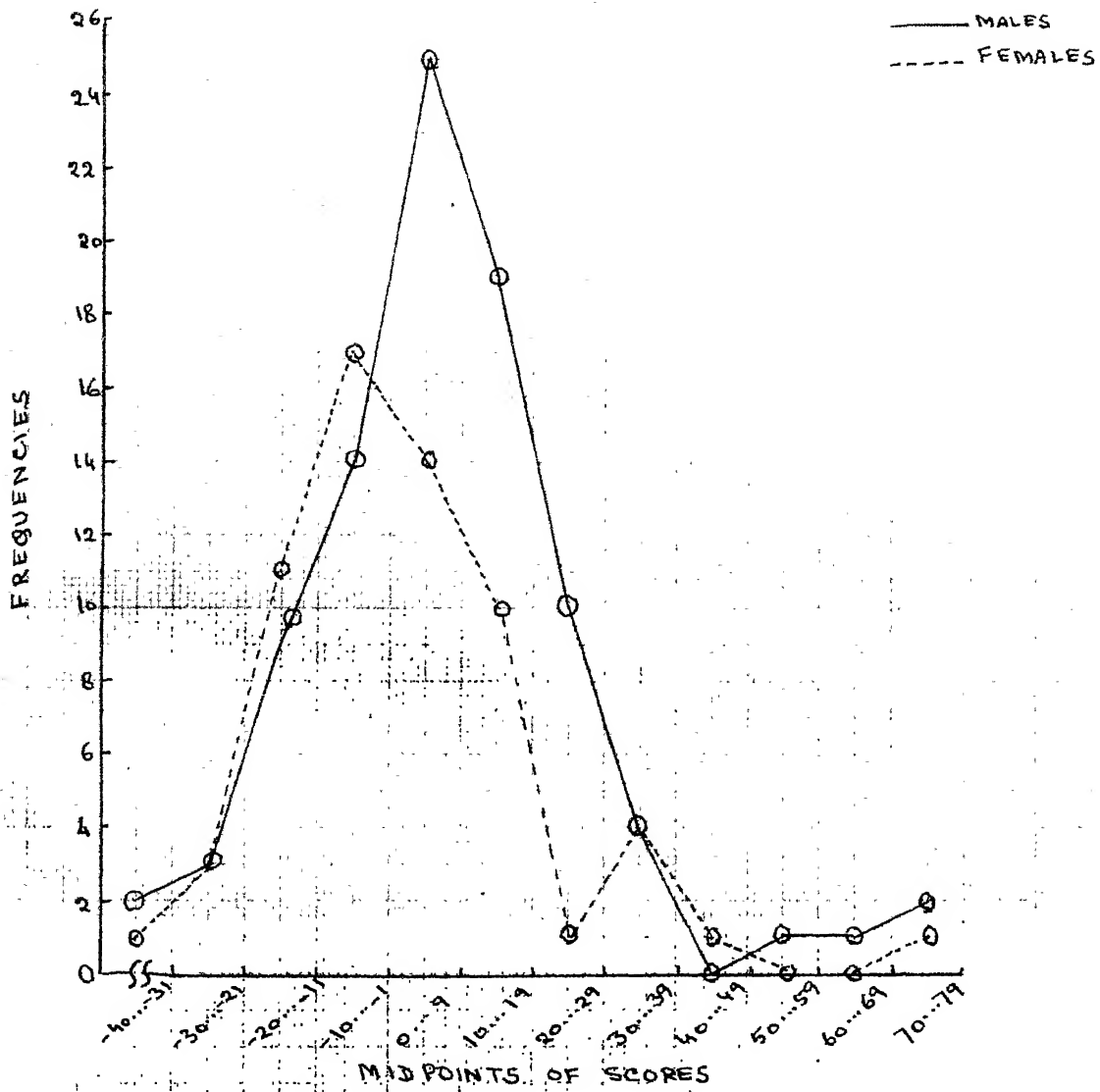
FIG. 1. DISTRIBUTION OF D-F SCORES
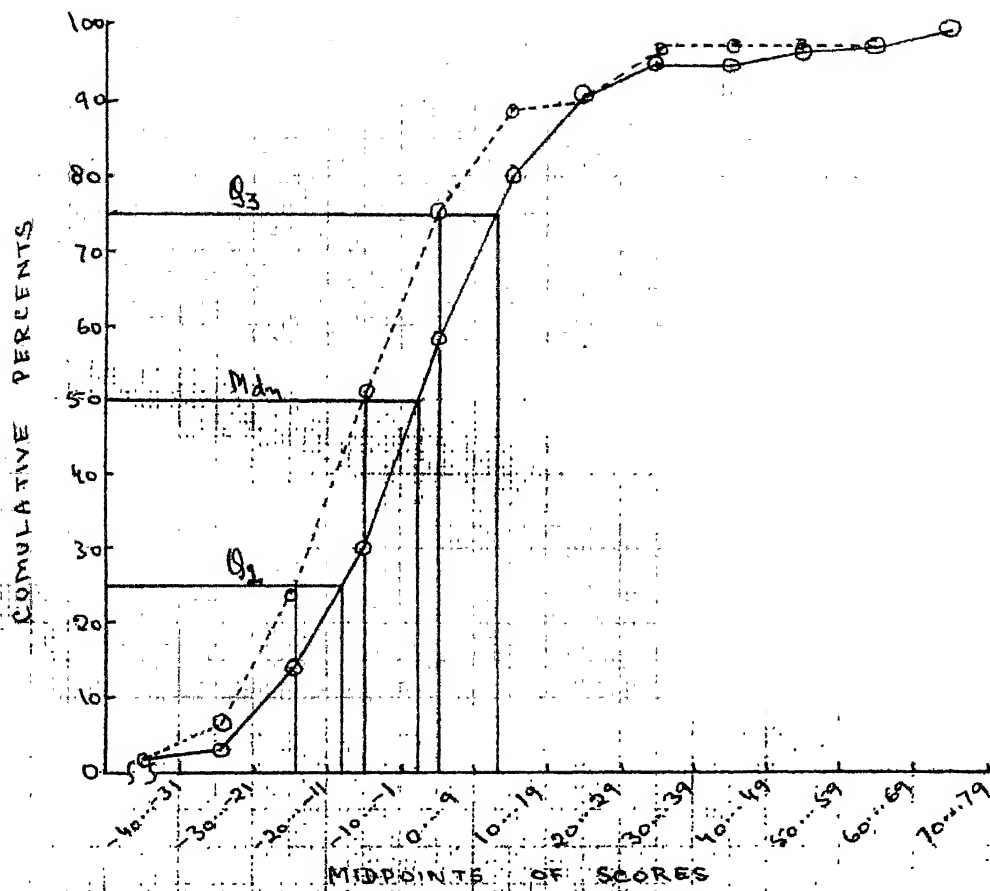
FIG 2. OGIVES REPRESENTING D-F SCORES

THE SAMPLE

The sample of this study consisted of 65 subjects selected from 151 university students on the basis of n-F scores. The 151 subjects were selected randomly from the Departments of Psychology and English. Since the intensive study was to be restricted to the extreme groups, the larger sample was selected from the population without using the Random Number Tables. The assumption being that n Achievement, like most of the traits, was distributed normally in the population.

Out of the 151 subjects, 88 were males and 63 females. On the basis of Q_1 and Q_3 values of the two groups, the subjects constituting the extreme groups were selected for intensive study. Table 3.3 gives the classification of the subjects in terms of the criterion groups.

Table 3.3

DISTRIBUTION OF THE CRITERION
GROUPS

MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL
High	Low	High	Low	
16	18	16	15	65

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CRITERION GROUPS

Table 3.4 shows the distribution of the subjects in regard to some of the personal variables.

Table 3.4

EXTREME GROUPS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PERSONAL VARIABLES

Variables	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL
	High	Low	High	Low	
I.CASTE					
Brahmin	7	7	4	1	19
Kayastha	5	3	4	3	15
Vaishya	1	-	4	2	7
Kshatriya	1	5	2	-	8
Khattri	1	-	2	4	7
Sudra	-	1	-	-	1
Not Given	1	2	-	5	8
					(65)
IIa.FATHER'S EDUC.					
School	5	8	1	6	20
College	1	4	1	3	9
Univ.	7	3	11	3	24
Not Given	5	3	3	3	12
					(65)
IIb.MOTHER'S EDUC.					
No Educ.	7	6	2	1	16
School	7	7	7	13	34
College	-	1	3	-	4
Univ.	1	-	4	-	5
Not Given	1	4	-	1	6
					(65)
III.FATHER'S OCCU-PATION					
Agriculture	5	8	-	-	13
Business	2	1	4	2	9
Service	6	7	10	10	33
Not Given	5	2	2	5	10
					(65)
IV.SIBLINGS					
Mean	5.65	4.88	4.75	4.80	-
V.ORDER OF BIRTH					
Only	5	-	-	2	5
Oldest	2	2	4	3	11
Youngest	1	4	3	3	11
Middle	9	12	9	6	36
Not Given	1	-	-	1	2
					(65)

In case of males, 14 subjects (7 each of high and low) belonged to the Brahmin caste. Among the females, 4 subjects each of the high n Ach group were Brahmins, Kayastha and Vaishya.

Both in case of males and females, a greater number of parents of the subjects with a high need Achievement had a higher level of education.

In regard to the parents' occupation, in 6 cases out of 16 males with a high n Achievement, the father's occupation was service, and in 5 cases it was agriculture. Among those with a low need for achievement, 8 subjects out of 18 reported their father's occupation as agriculture while 7 mentioned "service". In case of the female subjects, over 62 per cent in both the high and the low n Ach groups reported "service" as the occupation of their father.

The average number of siblings in case of high n Achievement group was 5.63 (males) and 4.75 (females). In case of low n Ach group the figures were 4.88 (males) and 4.80 (females).

Most of the subjects both in the high as well as low n Ach groups had siblings both older and younger to themselves.

COLLECTION OF DATA

As pointed out in the previous chapter, it was decided to use the following tests and scales for

verifying the hypotheses formulated in this study.

    (a) The Sinha W.A. Self-Analysis Form.

    (b) The Self-Concept Scale.

    (c) The Madras Picture-Frustration Study.

    (d) The Thematic Apperception Test.

    (e) The California F. Scale.

    (f) The Rorschach Ink-blot Test.

SINHA W.A. SELF-ANALYSIS FORM:

Anxiety refers to a state of tension, an attitude of expectancy and a desire to engage in some tension-discharging activity. According to Sinha, "...the question about the nature of anxiety, and what exactly the tests measure is an intricate one, and it has defied a clear-cut answer", (Sinha, 1965, p.1).

"Anxiety is not so much a mental disorder confined to the purview of so-called 'abnormal psychology'. It is a painful and noxious state which many individuals face in normal day-to-day...it is no longer a phenomenon confined only to the maladjusted", (Sinha, 1962, p.21).

Like any other drive, anxiety too energizes, directs, and selects the behaviour of an organism. But unlike other drives, the stimuli of anxiety originate from the external environment. The psychoanalysts visualize anxiety as an emotional reaction to real or imaginary threats to one's security. (Freud, 1926; Horney, 1945; Sullivan, 1960).

Psychoanalysts being interested in the role
of anxiety in psychopathology classified it on the basis
of its intensity into primary anxiety and secondary
anxiety. The primary anxiety forces an individual to
discharge tension under any stress and is seen in
crying and hyperactivity (Schur, 1953; Cameron, 1963).
The secondary anxiety is "a reaction to the disinteg-
rative effects of primary anxiety" (Cameron, 1963,
p.231). It results from an inability to deal effective-
ly with the threatening stimuli.

Experimentalists on the other hand have often
classified anxiety into manifest anxiety and test
anxiety, (e.g. Taylor, 1956; Mandler and Sarason, 1952).
The purpose of stressing manifest anxiety was to dis-
tinguish it from the latent anxiety. The latter was
amenable to observation only through the techniques of
the depth psychology and thus difficult to be quanti-
fied. The manifest anxiety was described as anxiety
which is expressedly accepted by an individual and thus
could be measured by affirming or denying a set of
statements. Manifest anxiety was thus visualized as
a generalized state of drive. The Manifest Anxiety
Scales aimed at measuring the dynamogenic effects of
anxiety (Kausler and Trapp, 1959). This led to the
development of a drive-level theory of anxiety. Accor-
ding to Taylor, "In situations in which a number of
competing response tendencies are evoked, only one of
which is correct, the relative performance of high and
low drive groups will depend upon the number and com-

parative strengths of the various response tendencies."
(Taylor, 1956, p.304).

In contrast to the Manifest Anxiety Scales
which measure anxiety as a general drive, Test Anxiety
Questionnaire (e.g., Mandler and Sarason, 1952) measures
anxiety as a drive in a specific situation.

Since the aim of this study was to investigate
whether the anxiety as a generalized drive was related
to the need for Achievement—another generalized drive,
it was decided to use a measure of the manifest anxiety,
namely, the Sinha W.A. Self-Analysis Form.

This Scale is developed along the lines of
Taylor's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Sinha, 1961). It
provides a psychometric measure of the drive level of
anxiety as reflected in verbal responses of the subject.
It measures a general state of anxiety as manifested
in the behaviour of an individual.

The Scale comprises one hundred statements each
of which is to be answered by checking T (True) or F
(False) as applicable in case of a subject. The Scale
is self-administering and may thus easily be used in
group administration. There is no time limit for
answering the items. The anxiety score of a subject
is found by summing up the number of items marked as
True. The higher the score, the greater is the amount
of anxiety level in the subject.

In a normative study (Sinha, 1962), the following statistics were reported.

Mean 30.89 ±15.87

Mdn 28.80

SE_M 1.027

The Scale's coefficient of correlation with Taylor's MAS was .69 (Sinha, 1961), indicating thereby that it could be considered as a valid measure of manifest anxiety.

Another evidence of its validity is found in Sinha (1965a). The anxiety scores obtained on this scale by an unselected sample of 239 undergraduate students in an engineering institution and those obtained by 65 psychiatric patients in a mental hospital when compared with each other were found to have discriminated significantly between the two groups. The mean of the normal sample was 30.89 while that of the patients was 41.12 ($p < .01$). In the same study, a sample of 17 hyper-anxiety patients out of the 65 psychiatric patients obtained a mean score of 56.94 on this scale, and a sample of 28 students with anxiety-related problems obtained a mean score of 39.46 on it ($p > .05$).

The high reliability of the scale (Sinha, 1962) is indicated by the observation that the coefficient of correlation between the odd and the even statements by the split-half method was found to be .86 ($n = 239$).

The Spearman-Brown correction for double the length of the test yielded a coefficient of correlation of .92. The test-retest reliability of the scale was found to be .73 with an index of reliability of .35 (n = 83).

The main reason for using this scale in this study was its development under the Indian conditions.

THE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE:

The concept of self evolved during the 1940's out of the work of Reamy (1948) and Snygg and Coombs (1949) as an attempt to understand behaviour from the individual's phenomenal frame of reference. Phenomenological approach to self received a further impetus from Scheerer (1949) who worked out a 101 item rating scale for measuring self-concept. In 1958 Bills devised an Index of Adjustment and Values to measure the phenomenological self. Each item in the Bills Index is ranked in three categories : (a) the degree to which he is acceptant of his first rating of the item, and (c) the degree to which he aspires to be like that item. The difference between the (a) and (c) provides an index of the self and the ideal self discrepancy. (Bills, 1958).

Brownfain (1952) provided yet another measure of discrepancy between the self and the ideal self, the Brownfain index furnished information in regard to the discrepancy between the pessimist self and the optimist self.

The Scale was developed jointly by Sinha and

Singh (Singh, 1965) in a study of the personality corre-
lates of criminals. Instead of approaching the more
basic concept of Freudian "unconscious self", the Scale
aims at providing a measure of the phenomenal self.
The scale is known as the Self-rating Inventory. It
consisted of 15 traits of which 5 were social, 5 favour-
able, and 5 unfavourable. "By 'favourable traits' are
meant such traits which an individual will readily
attribute to himself as they are desirable to possess
from any point of view, e.g., intelligence, honesty,
etc. The opposite kind of traits have been referred to
as 'unfavourable traits'...a third category of traits
has been referred to as 'social traits'. These traits
are highly desirable from the social point of view, the
possession of which are likely to help the individual in
interpersonal relations, namely, traits like prestige,
co-operative etc." (Singh, 1965; p.84-85).

The split-half reliability was computed separately
for the "Private" Self and the "Social" Self forms of the
Self-rating Scale. For the Private Self, split-half
reliability was .62 with an index of reliability of
.76. In case of the Social Self form, the coefficient
of reliability was .56, with an index of reliability of
.72. (Singh, 1965).

The self-concept scale used in this study also
provided a discrepancy score between the private self and
the social self. The former is the self as judged by

the individual himself while the latter is the self as
the individual thinks he possesses according to the esti-
mates of others. Like the Brownfain's score, this
scale also calls for operating in terms of the two
different frames of reference and presupposes in the
rater an ability to empathise.

The discrepancy score is based on the difference
between the Private Self and the Social Self. The former
refers to the self as perceived by an individual, while
the latter reflects the self as individual thinks is
perceived by "the significant others".

The Sinha-Singh Self-Concept Scale requires the
subject to describe his Private Self and the Social Self on
a five-point rating scale in relation to 15 traits :
(1) Team-spirit; (2) Popularity; (3) Jealousy; (4)Kindness;
(5) Obedience; (6)Impulsiveness; (7)Physically attractive
(8)Destructiveness; (9)Prestige; (10)Sociability; (11)Infe-
riority; (12)Intelligence; (13)Persuasiveness; (14)Control
over emotions; and (15) Honesty.

In the present study, the indices of the scale
used included : (a) the over-all mean ratings on the
positive and the negative traits and (b) the discrepancy
score between the private self and the social self.

The Scale has been standardized on a sample of
Indian university students.

MADRAS PICTURE-FRUSTRATION STUDY:

Frustration involves an interference with a goal

directed behaviour. It is a situation in which a person's ongoing motivated behaviour is obstructed from being consummated (Cameron, 1963). The laboratory methods of inducing frustration include (a) interfering with a primary drive, (b) creating physical obstructions, and (c) artificially producing failure by setting unobtainable standards by falsifying scores or by condemning the person as inferior (Underwood, 1949). An important aim in inducing frustration is to study the subject's reactions to frustration.

Rosenzweig (1945) developed a projective measure of reactions to frustration called the Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study. The rationale of this test implied assessment of the reactions to frustration along two dimensions : the type of reactions, and the direction of reactions. According to Rosenzweig, "Under direction are included extrapunitiveness—in which aggression is turned out upon the environment; intrapunitiveness—in which it is turned in upon the subject himself; and impunitiveness—in which aggression is turned off, i.e. evaded in an attempt to gloss over the situation. Under type of reaction fall obstacle-dominance—in which the presence or the nature of the barrier occasioning the frustration is emphasized in the response; ego-defense—in which the protection of the ego predominates; and need persistence—in which the solution of the frustrating problem stands out."(Rosenzweig,1949,p.168).

Developed along the line of the Rosenzweig PF Study, the Madras Picture-Frustration Study (Muthayya, 1961) consists of fifteen cartoon-like frustration situations. In each of these one character is shown making a frustrating remark. The subject is required to write in the space provided, the statement which the other character in the situation would make. The reason why this test was used in this study is that it has been developed and standardized on an Indian sample.

The Madras P-F Study is standardized on subjects ranging from 13 to 17 years in age. The coefficients of reliability varied from .36 to .70. The inter-rater reliability was found to be from .42 per cent to .89 per cent.

The test is self-administering and takes from 18 to 20 minutes to answer.

THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST:

The Thematic Apperception Test (Murray, 1938) was not used in this study to measure the need for Achievement. Instead it constituted a measure of the dependent variable namely the personality patterns of the subjects who scored high and low on the Aronson's Graphic Expression Test of need Achievement (Aronson, 1958).

The Cards Nos. 1, 3BM, 6BM, 8BM, 12M, 13MF, 14, 17BM and 19 were used for the male subjects. The cards used for the females were : 1, 3GF, 6GF, 8GF, 12F, 13MF,

14, 17GF and 19. The description of these cards has already been given in Chapter 1.

The Test was administered in small groups of subjects constituting from 4 to 6 persons. Each subject was given a booklet with 9 blank sheets, one each for the 9 cards. The cover of the booklet contained the memeographed instructions for writing the stories:

"This is a test of imagination. I am going to show you some pictures, one at a time, and your task will be to make a story, as dramatic as possible, about each of the pictures. Describe (1)What has led up to the event shown in the picture; (2) What is happening at the moment; (3) What the characters are feeling and thinking, and (4) What will be the outcome. Express your thoughts as they come to you."

The tester read the instructions aloud with the subjects and then presented Card 1 to them. The card was placed on the table in a way so that all of them could see it. They were given 5 minutes to write each story. This was also mentioned on the cover of the booklet, "You will be having about five minutes to write each story."

The stories obtained were analyzed according to the scheme developed by Verhaus (1961).

For a quantitative comparison, it was decided to tabulate the frequencies and percentages of the total number of the stories produced by each of the

criterion groups. For example, there were 16 subjects
in the males high need Achievement group and 18 in the
low n Ach groups. Since there were 9 TAT cards admi-
nistered on them, the total number of stories produced
by each was 144 (16x9) and 162 (18x9) respectively. The
tables prepared showed the distribution of these 144
and 162 stories in terms of the various Vorhaus catego-
ries.

THE CALIFORNIA F SCALE:

The F Scale used in this study comprised 24 items
from the F Scale : Forms 45 and 40 (Adorno et al, 1950,
p.252-262). The dimensions of authoritarianism and the
items measuring them which were included in the F scale
used in this research were as follows :

(a) Conventionalism.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are
the most important virtues children should
learn.

12. A person who has bad manners, habits and
breeding can hardly expect to get along
with decent people.

37. If people would talk less and work more,
everybody would be better off.

41. The businessman and the manufacturer are
much more important to society than the
artist and the professor.

(b) Authoritarian Submission.

   1. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.

   4. Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

   8. Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

  21. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.

  23. What this country needs most, more than laws and political programmes, is a few courageous tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.

  42. No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative.

  44. Nobody has ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

(c) Authoritarian Aggression.

  12. A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.

  13. What the youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.

17. An insult to our honour should always be punished.

25. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped or worse.

27. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

34. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feeble-minded people.

37. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

39. Homosexuals are nothing but degenerates and ought to be severely punished.

(d) Anti-intraception.

9. When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.

31. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

37. If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

41. The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.

(e) Superstition and Stereotypy.

4. Science has its place, but there are many important things that never possibly be understood by the human mind.

8. Every person should have complete faith in
   some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys
   without question.

16. Some people are born with the urge to jump
    from high places.

26. People can be divided into two distinct classes :
    the weak and the strong.

29. Someday it will probably be shown that astrology
    can explain a lot of things.

33. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended
    by an earthquake or flood that will destroy
    the whole world.

(f) Power and Toughness.

2. No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if
   we have enough will power.

13. What the youth needs most is strict discipline,
    rugged determination, and the will to work and
    fight for family and country.

19. An insult to our honour should always be punished.

23. What this country needs most, more than laws and
    political programmes, is a few courageous, tireless,
    devoted leaders in whom the people can put their
    faith.

26. People can be divided into two distinct classes :
    the weak and the strong.

38. Most people don't realize how much our lives are
    controlled by plots hatched in secrets by politi-
    cians.

The F Scale consistin; of the above-mentioned
items was presented to the subjects as an "Opinion Ques-
tionnaire". The instructions required them to read each
statement and then write "A" if they agreed with it and
"D" if they disagreed. The total number of the "A" marked
items constituted the F score of a subject.

THE RORSCHACH INKBLOT TEST:

The Rorschach Test was administered individually
and scored according to the procedure described in
Beck (1944). However, movement responses were also scored
for the animal and the inanimate bodies as described by
Klopfer (1954). The scoring of the form responses was done
according to the norms made available in Mukerjee (1960).

Since the number of responses varied from one
subject to another, it was considered advisable to treat
each response category value in terms of its percentage
of the total R of each of the criterion groups.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

In this study, the individuals possessing high
and low need for Achievement were compared in terms of
some variables comprising a few dimensions. The dimen-
sions used were those of human relations, individual-
environment relations, ego measure, and comfort-
discomfort. The corresponding variables were, dominance-
submission, reactions to frustration, self-concept, and
the level of anxiety. In addition to these, the sub-
jects were also compared in terms of the personality
patterns as projected through the Rorschach Test and
the Thematic Apperception Test.

The data obtained in this study were analyzed
both quantitatively and qualitatively with a view to
finding out the differences between the criterion groups.
In the Rorschach responses, however, since the number
of responses varied from one individual to the other,
the frequencies of the various indices such as W, D, Dd,
M, etc. could have presented a biased picture. To
avoid this, the indices were corrected for the total R,
by working out their percentages of the total number
of responses of each criterion group.

Similarly, in regard to the TAT responses too,
the results were analysed by applying a correction
for the total number of stories produced by each group
and then working out the percentage of stories falling
under each of the Vorhaus categories.

In most of the cases, the student's t test was

used for testing the significance of differences between the means. The SE of the percentages was used for testing the significance of difference between the percentages.

The results are presented here in two sections: Section I includes the findings in regard to the selected dimensions and their variables, while Section II presents the results obtained on the Rorschach and the Thematic Apperception Tests.

SECTION I

DIMENSIONS AND VARIABLES

A. HUMAN RELATIONS (DOMINANCE-SUBMISSION):

In the F Scale all the items answered affirmatively were given a score of 1, while those answered in negative were scored as 0. The total number of "Yes" responses constituted the F score of the subject. The higher the F score greater was the amount of authoritarianism in the subject.

In addition to the total F score, the criterion groups were also examined on the various components of authoritarianism, such as conventionalism, authoritarian submission, authoritarian aggression, superstition and stereotypy, and, power and toughness. Each component score was obtained by adding up the affirmatively answered items from amongst those statements which measured each one of these specific components.

It may be seen from Table 4.1 and Figure 1
that the average F score of the male high $\underline{n}$ Ach group
was lower than that of the male low $\underline{n}$-Ach group. The
means being 15.50 and 16.72 respectively.

TABle 4.1

AUTHORITARIANIS

Ss Scores	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
MEAN	15.50	16.72	16.93	16.53
SD	2.20	3.54	3.07	3.34
SE_M	0.55	0.83	0.77	0.86

The mean scores of the criterion groups in case of
females were almost the same (16.93 high and 16.53
for low $\underline{n}$ Ach group). The average of the high $\underline{n}$ Ach
group, however, was slightly higher.

The mean differences between the female groups
were very low and therefore not tested for significance.
The $\underline{t}$ value of the differences between the averages of
males groups was 1.30, with $\underline{p}$ being .90 (approximately)
at 31 df.

The hypothesis that those scoring high on need
Achievement would score low on a measure of authorita-
rianism, was therefore statistically not held as true.
The findings, however, did appear to be in the predicted
direction.

The F syndrome (defined by conventionalism, authoritarian submission, authoritarian aggression anti-intraception, superstition and stereotypy, power and toughness etc.) tended to differentiate between the males possessing high and low amounts of need Achievement. The differences between the criterion groups when F scale was split into its component parts were as follows :

(a) CONVENTIONALISM:

Conventionalism was defined as the "rigid" adherence to conventional middle class values" (Sanford, 1956, p.275). It implied an overemphasis on the middle class values and a receptivity to external social pressure. Conventionalism was illustrated by the items such as, "obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn", "If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off", "The businessman and manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor". There were four items (Nos.1, 2, 3, 4) in the F scale used in this study measuring conventionalism. Table 4.2 gives the means, and the SDs of the criterion groups on conventionalism. In the case of men, the mean score of the high n Achievement group was slightly higher (mean = 3.00) than that of the low n Ach group (mean = 2.94)

Among the women too, those possessing a high amount of n Achievement scored higher on conventionalism

than the ones with low $\underline{n}$ Ach. The means were 3.12 and 2.93 respectively.

Table 4.2

CONVENTIONALISM

Ss Scores	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
MEAN	3.00	2.94	3.12	2.93
SD	0.20	0.71	0.71	0.45
SE$_M$	0.05	0.16	0.17	0.11

(b) AUTHORITARIAN SUBMISSION:

Authoritarian submission was the "submissive uncritical attitude toward idealized moral authorities of the ingroup". Item numbers 1,5,6,7,8,9, and 10 on the F Scale measured this aspect. It was illustrated by the statements such as, "Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind", "Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question", "No sane, normal, decent person could ever think of hurting a close friend or relative". The means and the SD's of the subjects are given in Table 4.3.

The mean score of male high $\underline{n}$ Ach group was slightly lower (3.00) than that of the male low $\underline{n}$ Ach group (3.16). The variability of the subjects with

Table 4.5

AUTHORITARIAN SUBMISSION

Scores	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		5.00	5.16	5.18	5.67
SD		0.55	1.55	0.97	0.28
SE_M		0.08	0.51	0.24	0.72

low n Achievement was 1.55 as against 0.55 in the case
of the persons with a high n Achievement.

In the case of females also, subjects with high
n Achievement averaged lower (5.18) than those with low
n Ach (5.67).

(c) AUTHORITARIAN AGGRESSION:

This dimension of authoritarianism measured by
the item numbers 2,5,11,12, 13,14,15 and 16 of the
F Scale implied a "tendency to be on the lookout for
and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate
conventional values" (Sanford, 1956, p.275). The items
illustrating this were "An insult to our honour should
always be punished"; "What the youth needs most is
strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will
to work and fight for family and country"; "Most of
our social problems would be solved if we could somehow
get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feeble-minded
people."

The males with a high amount of need Achievement

obtained a lower mean score than those who were low on it (Table 4.4). The values were 6.00 and 6.55 respectively.

The results in case of females were in the reverse order. The mean score of the high n Ach group was higher (6.62) than the mean of the low n Ach group (6.20). Of course, the mean differences in both, males and females, were statistically not significant.

Table 4.4

AUTHORITARIAN AGGRESSION

Scores	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		6.00	6.55	6.62	6.20
SD		1.63	1.50	1.25	1.26
SE_M		0.41	0.35	0.31	0.33

(d) ANTI-INTRACEPTION:

Anti-intraception was described as the "opposition to the subjective, the imaginative, the tender-minded". (Sanford, 1956, p.275). The items measuring anti-intraception in the present F scale were 3, 4, 17, and 18. The item number 17 for instance read "When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things." The item 18 was, "Nowadays more and more people are prying

into matters that should remain personal and private."
Table 4.5 gives the findings.

Table 4.5

ANTI-INTRACEPTION

Scores	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		2.40	2.30	2.69	2.53
SD		0.96	0.94	0.94	1.12
SE$_M$		0.20	0.20	0.24	0.29

The mean anti-intraception score of the males with strong n Achievement was 2.40 as against 2.30 of those with low n Ach. Amongst women too, those possessing a high n Ach scored higher (2.69) than those who were low on it (2.53).

(e) SUPERSTITION AND STEREOTYPY:

This referred to the "belief in mystical determinants of the individual's fate; the disposition to think in rigid categories." (Sanford, 1956, p.275). The items 5, 6, 19, 20, 21 and 22 of the F scale measured this dimension of the F syndrome. The items were, for instance, "Some people are born with an urge to jump from high places"; "People can be divided into two distinct classes : the weak and the strong"; "Someday

it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things."

The mean score of the males who possessed a high need for Achievement was 2.30 as against 3.20 in case of the low n Ach group (Table 4.6). The mean difference, however, was statistically not significant. In regard to females, means for both high and low n Ach groups were identical (3.07). The variability was, however, slightly more in case of high n Ach subjects (1.69) than in the low n Ach group (1.62).

Table 4.6

SUPERSTITION AND STEREOTYPY

Scores	Sex	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		2.30	3.20	3.07	3.07
SD		4.20	5.28	1.69	1.62
SE$_M$		1.05	1.24	0.42	0.42

(f) POWER AND TOUGHNESS:

Power and toughness were defined as the "preoccupation with the dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; identification with power figures; exaggerated assertion of strength and toughness". (Sanford, 1956, p.275). Illustrative items measuring

this aspect were, "What this country needs most, more than laws and political programmes, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith"; "No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power"; "Most people don't realise how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places." Items 8, 11, 12, 20, 23 and 24 of the F scale measured power and toughness.

Table 4.7 shows that among the males, subjects with high n Achievement scored lower (4.25) than those who possessed a low n Ach (4.61). The SD's were 0.99 and 0.11 respectively. In the case of females, the findings were opposite. The mean score of the high n Ach group was slightly higher than that of the low n Ach cases. The figures being 4.81 and 4.46 respectively.

Table 4.7

POWER AND TOUGHNESS

Scores	Se	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		4.25	4.61	4.81	4.46
SD		0.99	0.11	1.16	1.19
SE_M		0.25	0.03	0.29	0.31

SUMMARY (DIMENSION A : HUMAN RELATIONS):

Summing up the findings on authoritarianism, amongst the males, persons with a high n Ach scored low on

(a) conventionalism and (b) anti-intraception, and high
on (a) over all F, (b) authoritarian submission, (c)
authoritarian aggression, (d) superstition and stereo-
typy and (e) power and toughness. None of these differen-
ces, however, happened to be significant statistically.
Hence no categorical conclusions could be drawn. At
best, these are indicative of certain trends.

In case of the females, the subjects with high
n Achievement scored high on (a) over-all F, (b) conven-
tionalism, (c) authoritarian aggression, (d) anti-
intraception and (e) power and toughness, and low on
authoritarian submission.

These conclusions do indicate that the individuals
with high n Ach were not interested in people as tools
for seeking satisfaction of dominance and/or submission.
As against these, the persons with a low n Ach seemed to
be interested in others as means for getting satisfac-
tion (Figure 1).

B. INDIVIDUAL-ENVIRONMENT RELATIONSHIP (REACTIONS
   TO FRUSTRATION:

It was postulated that the obstacle-dominance,
extrapunitive type of reactions would be found more
frequently in the case of subjects with high need Achieve-
ment, while the ego defensive reactions would charac-
terise the individuals low on n Achievement.

Since the number of cases in the criterion groups
was not large, the frequencies of subjects giving the
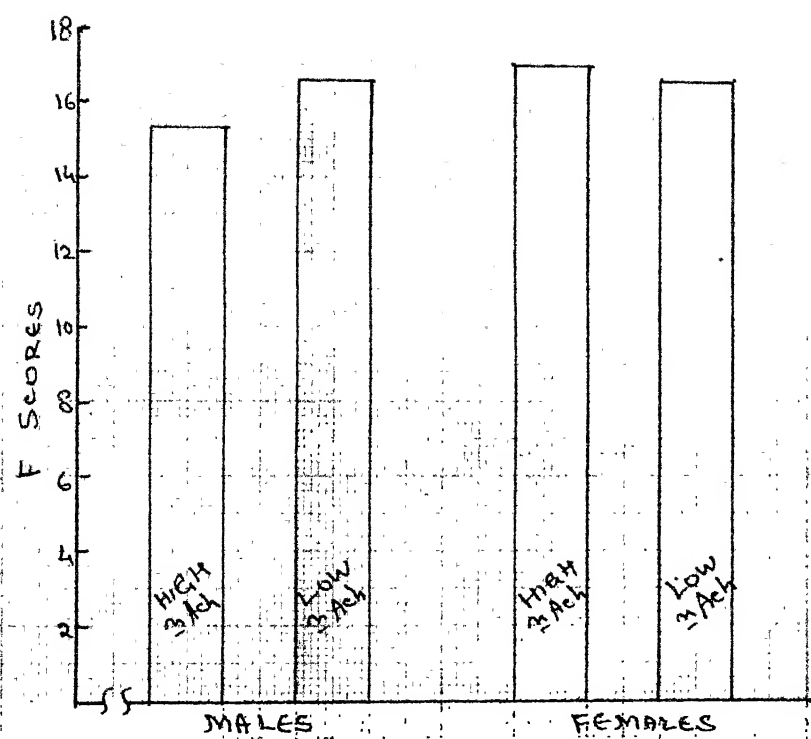
FIG. 1. MEAN F SCORES

predicted type of reactions were not expected to reflect the differences clearly. It was therefore decided to compare the subjects in terms of the total number of responses given by the each group.

In the Madras Picture Frustration Study there are 15 different situations to which a subject is required to give his reactions. There were 15 subjects in the male high n Ach group, and 18 in the low n Ach group. Thus the total number of responses was equal to 225 (15x15) and 270 (18x15) for both the groups respectively. Similarly the number of subjects in the female high n Ach and low n Ach groups being 16 and 15 respectively, the corresponding number of responses was 240 (16x15) and 225 (15x15).

Tables 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10 give the distribution of responses in terms of the different scoring categories for the male subjects.

Table 4.8

DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRA-
TION : EXTRAPUNITIVE DIRECTION

(Figures within brackets refer to percentages)

Ss	Types	O-D	E-D	N-P
Males	High	66.0 (29.73)	12.5 (5.63)	46.0 (20.72)
	Low p	61.0 (22.19) < .05	29.0 (11.05) <.05	65.5 (24.14)

TABLE 4.9

DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION :
INTRAPUNITIVE DIRECTION

(Figures within brackets refer to percentages)

Ss	Types	O-D	E-D	N-P
Males	High	1.5 (0.67)	4.0 (1.80)	26.0 (11.73)
	Low	-	2.0 (0.76)	20.0 (7.60)

Table 4.10

DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION :
IMPUNITIVE DIRECTION

(Figures within brackets refer to percentages)

Ss	Types	O-D	E-D	N-P
Males	High	3.5 (1.57)	19.5 (8.78)	43.0 (19.37)
	Low	0.5 (0.19	23.0 (8.75)	64.0 (24.33)
	p	< .05	-	-

It may be seen that 29.73 per cent responses of
the male high n Ach group as against 23.19 per cent of
the low n Ach group were of the Obstacle-Dominance,
Extrapunitive type. The differences were significant at

the .05 level. The Obstacle-Dominance, Impunitive responses comprised 3.5 per cent of the total responses of the males high n Ach group and 0.5 per cent of the males' responses with low n Ach. The difference was found to be significant at the .05 level.

The number of Ego-Defensive, Extrapunitive responses was 5.65 per cent for the high and 11.03 per cent for the low n Ach group. The difference was significant at .05 level.

There was also a difference, though not significant, between the groups in terms of the Need-Persistence reactions. The high n Ach males subjects gave 20.72 per cent of their responses in the N-P, Extrapunitive Category. The corresponding figure for the low n Ach subjects was 24.14 per cent.

Tables 4.11, 4.12, and 4.13 present the results in the case of females. The high n Ach female subjects gave more responses of Ego-Defensive, Intrapunitive type (6.57 per cent) than the low n Ach group (1.54 per cent). The difference was significant at the .01 level. Similarly, the Ego-Defensive, Impunitive reactions were more frequently found in the low n Ach group (14.87 per cent) than in the high group (7.6 per cent). The difference was significant at .01 level. Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the relationship between the n Ach and the reactions to frustrations.
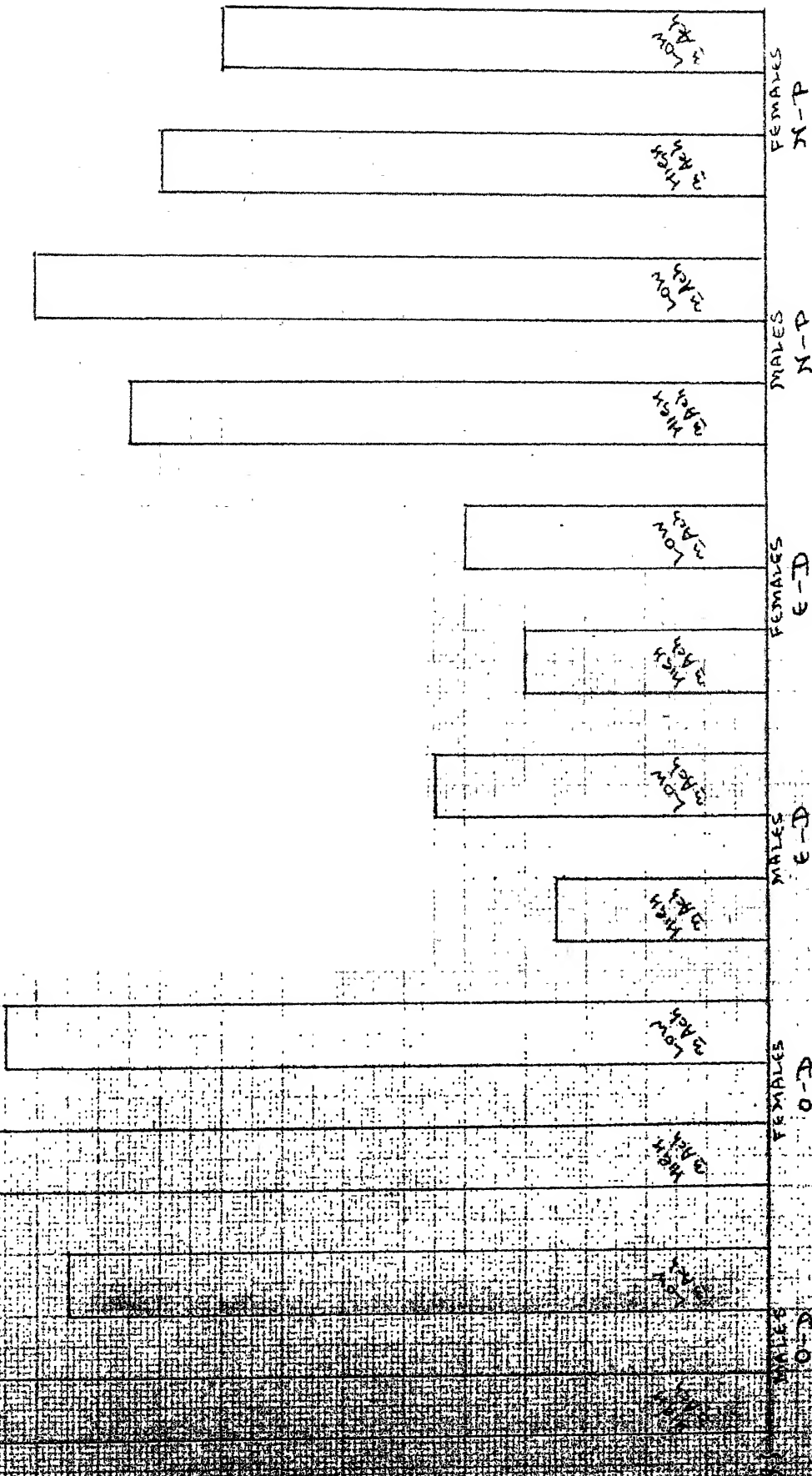
FIG. 2. REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION: EXTRAPUNITIVE RESPONSES
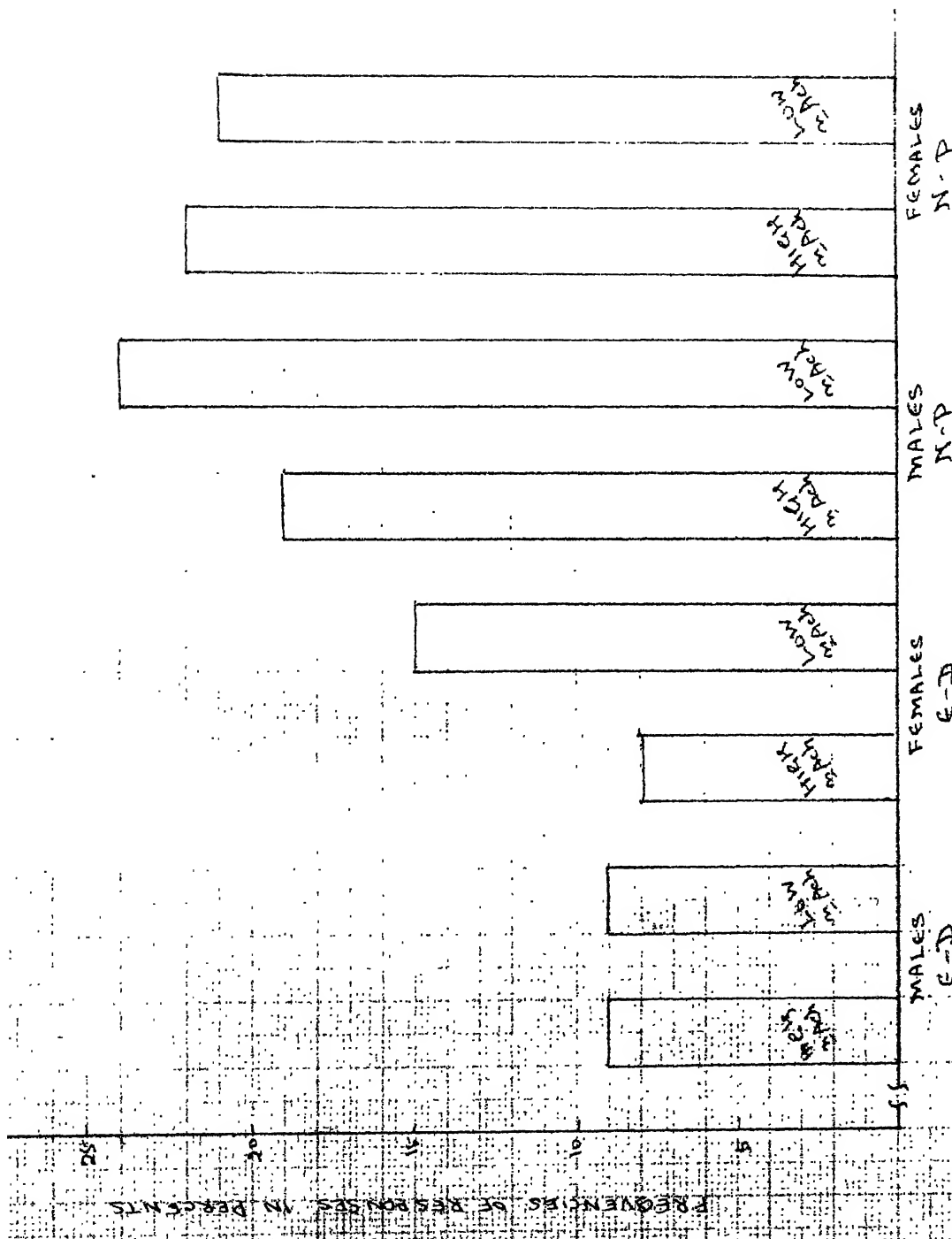
FIG. 3. REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION: IMPUNITIVE RESPONSES
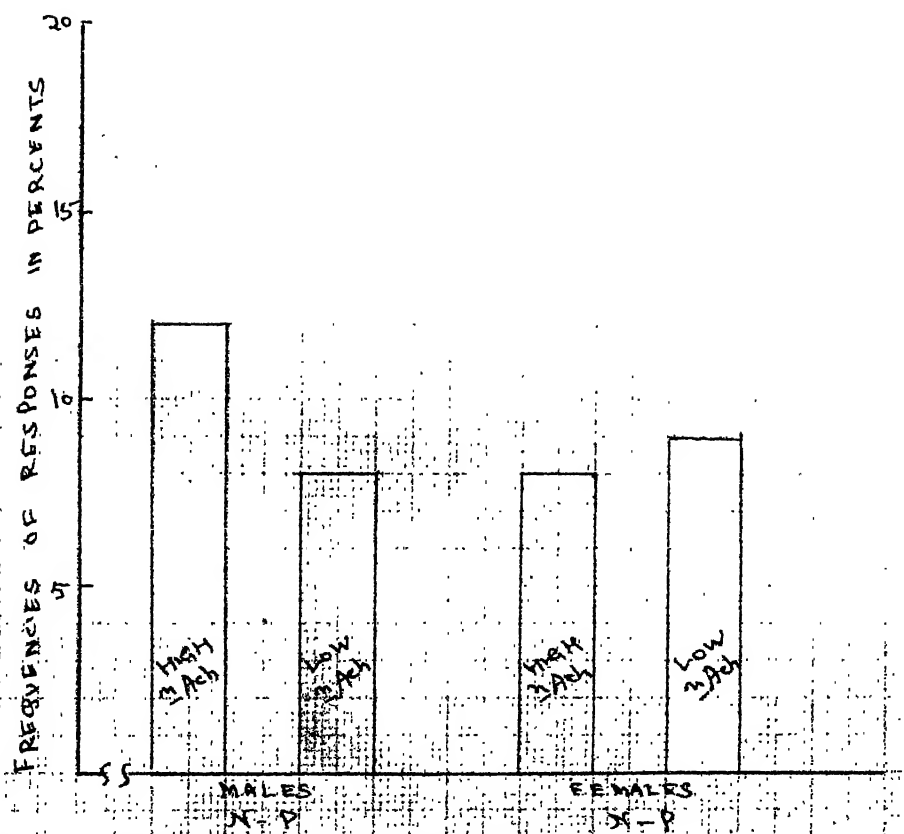
FIG. 4 REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION: INTRAPUNITIVE RESPONSES

Table 4.11

DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION:
EXTRAPUNITIVE DIRECTION

(Figures within brackets refer to percentages)

Ss	Types	O-D	E-D	N-P
Females	High	69.0 (29.24)	18.5 (7.84)	46.0 (19.49)
	Low	55.0 (24.55)	22.5 (10.05)	39.5 (17.63)

Table 4.12

DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION:
INTRAPUNITIVE DIRECTION

(Figures within brackets refer to percentages)

Ss	Types	O-D	E-D	N-P
Females	High	1.0 (0.42)	15.5 (6.57)	16.0 (6.78)
	Low	-	3.0 (1.34)	22.0 (9.82)
	p	-	<.01	-

Table 4.13

DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION: IMPUNITIVE DIRECTION

(Figures within brackets refer to percentages)

Ss	Types	O-D	E-D	N-P
	High	-	18.0 (7.63)	52.0 (22.03)
Females				
	Low	1.0 (0.45)	35.0 (14.87)	48.0 (21.43)
	p	-	$< .01$	-

SUMMARY (DIMENSION-B : INDIVIDUAL-ENVIRONMENT RELATIONS)

Individuals possessing a high amount of n Achievement seemed to be characterised by the Obstacle-Dominance, Extrapunitive type of responses to frustrating situations.

Those possessing low n Ach were marked by Ego-Defensive and Need-Persistence types of reactions.

This was true both in the males and females.

These results seemingly confirm our contention (Chapter 2) that an individual with high n Ach would tend to stress the obstacles on way to his goal.

C. EGO MEASURE (SELF-CONCEPT):

The subjects were required to indicate the degree

to which they thought a certain trait was present in
them, on a five-point graphic rating scale ranging from
Most (point 5) to Least (point 1). The self-concept
evaluation was done at two levels. First, the subjects
had to indicate the way they would rate themselves.
This was the self as judged by the self or rater, and
was called the "Private Self". On the second level,
they were to indicate the way they thought somebody
else would rate them. This was the self as judged from
the other's point of view, and was termed as the "Social
Self".

The responses of the subjects were analysed as
follows :

(a) Mean ratings of Private Self on favourable,
social, and unfavourable traits (Tables 4.14a,
4.14b, 4.14c).

(b) Mean ratings of Social Self on favourable,
social, and unfavourable traits (Tables 4.15a,
4.15b, 4.15c).

(c) Discrepancy Scores (Obtained by subtracting
the mean rating on each trait in the Social
Self from the corresponding mean rating in the
Private Self) (Table 4.16).

(d) Mean discrepancy scores (Table 4.17).

Taking the mean ratings of or above 3.75 (on the
five-point rating scale as indicative of one's self-
concept, the private self of the males with a high amount

of n Ach was described by impulsiveness, prestige,
sociability and honesty. The private self of the sub-
jects with a low n Achievement consisted of only one
trait, namely, kindness. Obedience was another quality
on which the mean rating was almost close (3.73) to
the criterion rating of 3.85 (Tables 4.14a, b, c).

Table 4.14a

MEAN RATINGS OF PRIVATE SELF
ON FAVOURABLE TRAITS

Ss Traits	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
Kindness	3.75	3.94	3.37	4.00
Physically attractive	2.94	2.94	2.94	2.60
Emotional Control	3.57	3.50	3.25	3.33
Intelligence	3.43	3.50	3.06	3.06
Honesty	4.19	3.88	3.75	3.66

Table 4.14b

MEAN RATINGS OF PRIVATE SELF
ON SOCIAL TRAITS

Ss Traits	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
Prestige	3.69	3.72	3.81	3.46
Team spirit	3.25	3.72	3.43	3.53
Persuasiveness	3.81	3.44	3.62	3.20
Sociability	3.56	3.38	3.95	3.33
Popularity	3.25	3.88	3.25	3.15

Table 4.14C

MEAN RATINGS OF PRIVATE SELF
ON UNFAVOURABLE TRAITS

Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
Traits	High	Low	High	Low
Jealousy	2.26	2.38	2.50	2.20
Impulsiveness	3.75	3.33	4.00	3.33
Destructiveness	2.25	1.77	2.12	2.06
Obedience	3.43	3.61	3.12	3.75
Inferiority	2.00	2.00	2.56	2.26

The private self of the females with a high need for Achievement comprised impulsiveness, prestige, sociability and honesty. As in the case of males with a low n Ach, the females subjects who were low on it also had only one trait indicative of their private self, that is, kindness. The next trait closest to it was obedience, its mean rating being 3.75.

In the male sample, the Social Self mean ratings of the persons with high n Achievement were higher on kindness, impulsiveness, physical attractiveness, destructiveness, inferiority, persuasiveness, and control over emotions (Tables 4.15a, b, c). On the other traits the ratings were lower.

Among the females, the high n Ach group rated higher on team spirit, physical attractiveness, sociability, persuasiveness, and control over emotions. On the rest of the traits, the mean ratings of the women with low

Achievement were higher, with the exception of honesty, on which the two groups obtained equal ratings.

Table 4.15a

MEAN RATINGS OF SOCIAL SELF ON FAVOURABLE TRAITS

Ss Traits	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
Kindness	3.62	3.55	3.37	3.93
Physically attractive	5.31	3.22	3.12	3.00
Emotional Control	3.43	3.38	3.43	3.00
Intelligence	3.43	3.88	3.75	3.80
Honesty	4.00	4.11	4.00	4.00

Table 4.15b

MEAN RATINGS OF SOCIAL SELF ON SOCIAL TRAITS

Ss Traits	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
Prestige	3.81	3.94	3.37	3.86
Team spirit	3.43	3.88	3.69	3.40
Persuasiveness	3.69	3.61	3.43	3.40
Sociability	3.56	3.72	3.56	3.53
Popularity	3.43	3.61	3.37	3.46

Table 4.15c

MEAN RATINGS OF SOCIAL SELF
ON UNFAVOURABLE TRAITS

Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
Traits	High	Low	High	Low
Jealousy	2.31	2.16	2.18	1.93
Impulsiveness	3.75	3.27	3.81	3.66
Destructiveness	2.81	1.83	2.18	2.53
Obedience	3.31	3.44	3.06	3.60
Inferiority	2.25	2.05	1.50	2.26

Tables 4.15d and 4.15e show the consolidated mean
ratings on all the 15 traits for the private and social selves

Table 4.15d

MEAN RATINGS ON A FIVE-POINT SCALE :
"PRIVATE SELF"

Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
Traits	High	Low	High	Low
1. Team spirit	3.25	3.72	3.43	3.53
2. Popularity	3.25	3.38	3.25	3.13
3. Jealousy	2.26	2.38	2.50	2.20
4. Kindness	3.75	3.94	3.87	4.00
5. Obedience	3.43	3.61	3.12	3.73
6. Impulsiveness	3.75	3.33	4.00	3.53
7. Physically attractive	2.94	2.94	2.94	2.60
8. Destructiveness	2.25	1.77	2.12	2.06
9. Prestige	3.69	3.72	3.81	3.46
10. Sociability	3.56	3.38	3.93	3.33
11. Inferiority	2.00	2.00	2.56	2.26
12. Intelligence	3.43	3.50	3.06	3.06
13. Persuasiveness	3.81	3.44	3.62	3.20
14. Control over B emotions	3.57	3.50	3.25	3.33
15. Honesty	4.19	3.83	3.75	3.46

There was a tendency on the part of the persons with high need Achievement to have, on the whole, lower ratings than the persons with low n Ach.

The results of the female sample also showed the same trends as found in the case of males.

When the criterion groups were compared in terms of their self-concepts on the favourable traits (e.g., kindness, intelligence), the social traits, (e.g. prestige, sociability), and the unfavourable traits, (e.g., jealousy, obedience), it was found (see Tables 4.14a, b, c, and 4.15a, b, c) that the private self of the males, high n Ach group included two favourable traits (kindness, honesty) and one social (persuasiveness) and one unfavourable trait (impulsiveness). The social self of these subjects consisted of one favourable trait (honesty), one social trait (prestige) and one unfavourable trait (impulsiveness).

The private self of the male subjects who were low on n Achievement was described by two favourable traits (kindness and honesty), no social trait, and no unfavourable trait. The social self of this group comprised one favourable trait (honesty), two social traits (prestige, team

spirit), and no unfavourable traits (Tables 4.14a, b, c, and 4.15a, b, c).

The inclusion of unfavourable traits in the case of the subjects with a high need Achievement, and the exclusion of these traits in case of those who were low on n Ach seems to indicate that the persons with a high n Ach were more critical of themselves. The self-centred uncritical self image of the low n Ach group perceived a further support when it was observed that the self-concept of this group did not include in it anyone of the social traits also.

Tables 4.14a, b, c, and 4.15a, b, c, further point out that in the case of female subjects too, those who were low on n Achievement, did not include anyone of the unfavourable or the social traits in describing their self-concepts on the private self. On the social self, only one social trait (prestige) was used while there was again no unfavourable trait.

The female subjects who scored high on need Achievement included, in their private self, one favourable trait (honesty), two social traits (prestige, sociability), and one unfavourable trait (impulsiveness).

Table 4.15e

MEAN RATINGS OF A FIVE-POINT SCALE
"SOCIAL SELF"

Traits	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
1. Team-spirit		3.43	3.88	3.69	3.40
2. Popularity		3.43	3.61	3.87	3.46
3. Jealousy		2.31	2.16	2.18	1.95
4. Kindness		3.62	3.55	3.37	3.93
5. Obedience		3.31	3.44	3.06	3.60
6. Impulsiveness		3.75	3.27	3.81	3.56
7. Physically attrac-tive		3.31	3.22	3.12	3.00
8. Destructiveness		2.81	1.83	2.18	2.53
9. Prestige		3.81	3.94	3.37	3.86
10. Sociability		3.56	3.72	3.56	3.53
11. Inferiority		2.25	2.05	1.50	2.26
12. Intelligence		3.43	3.88	3.75	3.80
13. Persuasiveness		3.69	3.61	3.43	3.40
14. Control over emotions		3.43	3.38	3.43	3.00
15. Honesty		4.00	4.11	4.00	4.00

Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8 show the mean ratings of
the subjects on all the 15 traits.

DISCREPANCY SCORES:

The number of positive discrepancy scores was
greater in the high n Ach groups both males and females
than the low n Ach groups (Table 4.16). This indicates
that the fear that others would under-estimate them
was more pronounced in the individuals who were low on
n Achievement. The mean discrepancy scores (Table 4.17)
of the males high n Ach group was -0.98 as against -2.71
of the low n Ach group. In the case of females, the
mean discrepancies were 0.89 (high n Ach) and -1.48
(low n Ach). The mean differences, both amongst the
males and females were statistically significant at
the .01 level of confidence. This was supported by the

FIG. 5. MEAN RATINGS ON PRIVATE AND SOCIAL SELVES:
MALES, HIGH n ACH.

* Please refer to Table third for a description of the traits

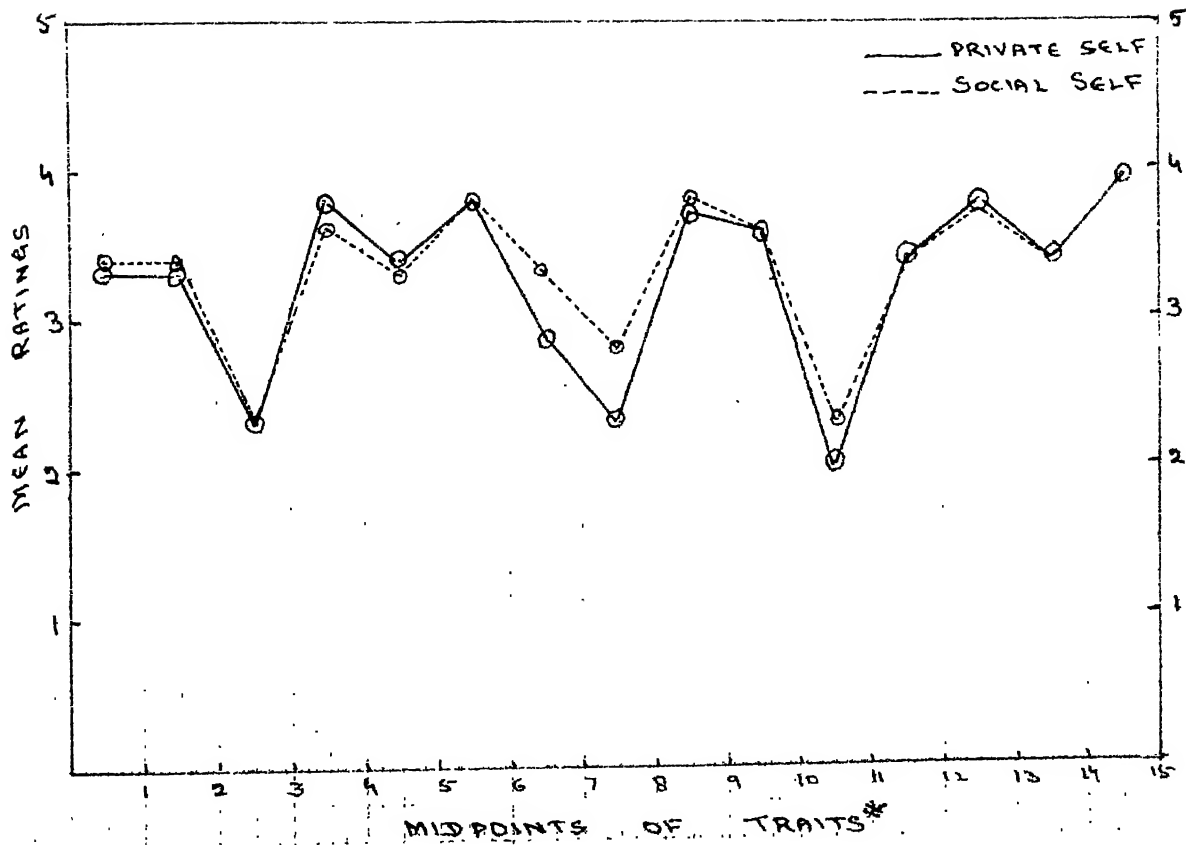FIG. 6. MEAN RATINGS ON PRIVATE AND SOCIAL SELVES: MALES, LOW n ACH
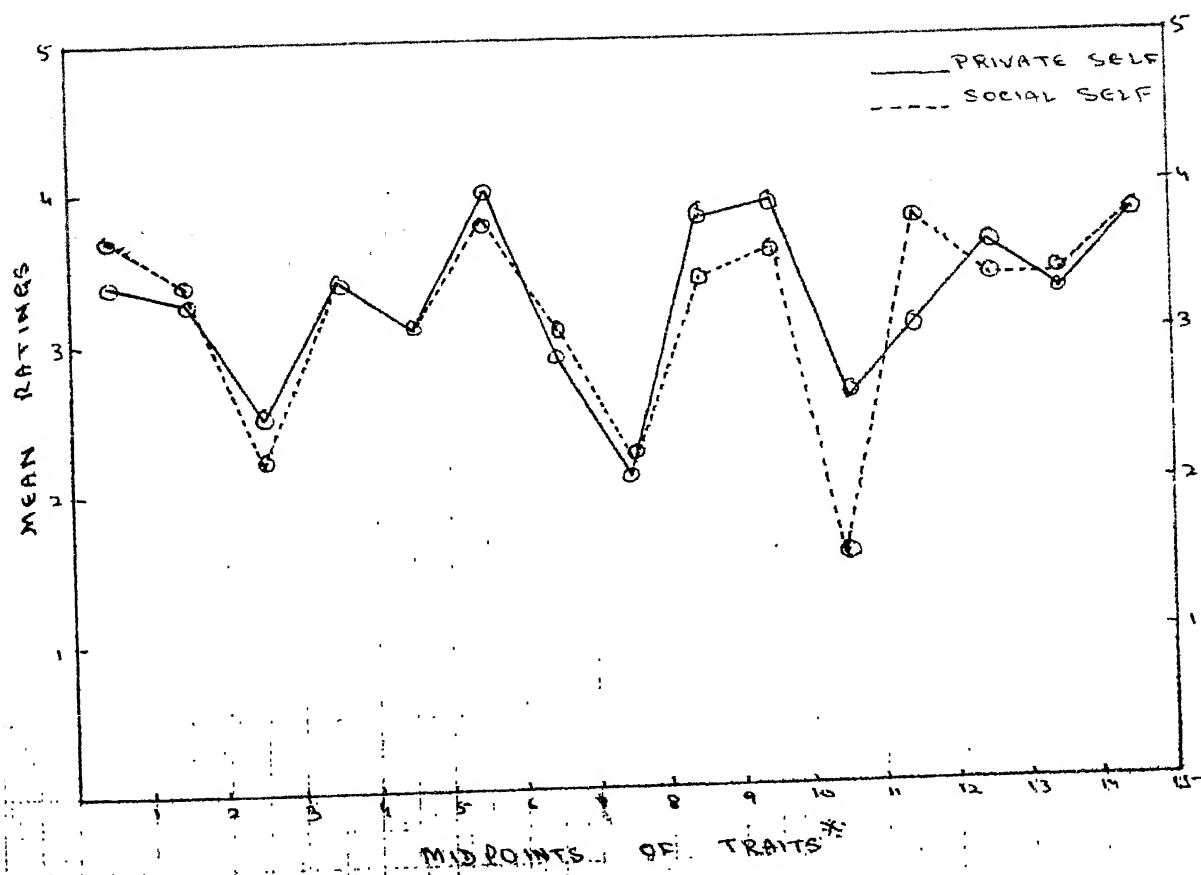
FIG 7. MEAN RATINGS ON PRIVATE AND SOCIAL SELVES: FEMALES, HIGH m ACH

* Please refer to Table A.K.d for a description of the traits

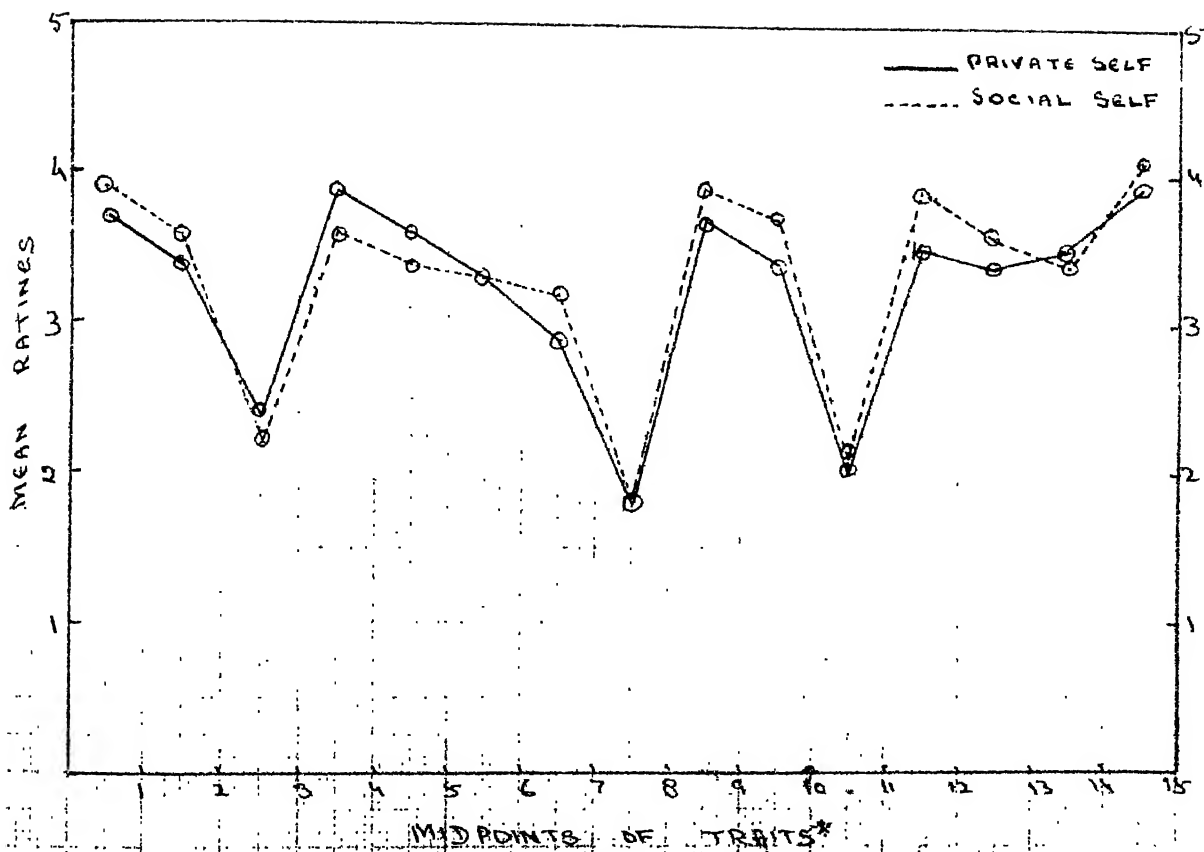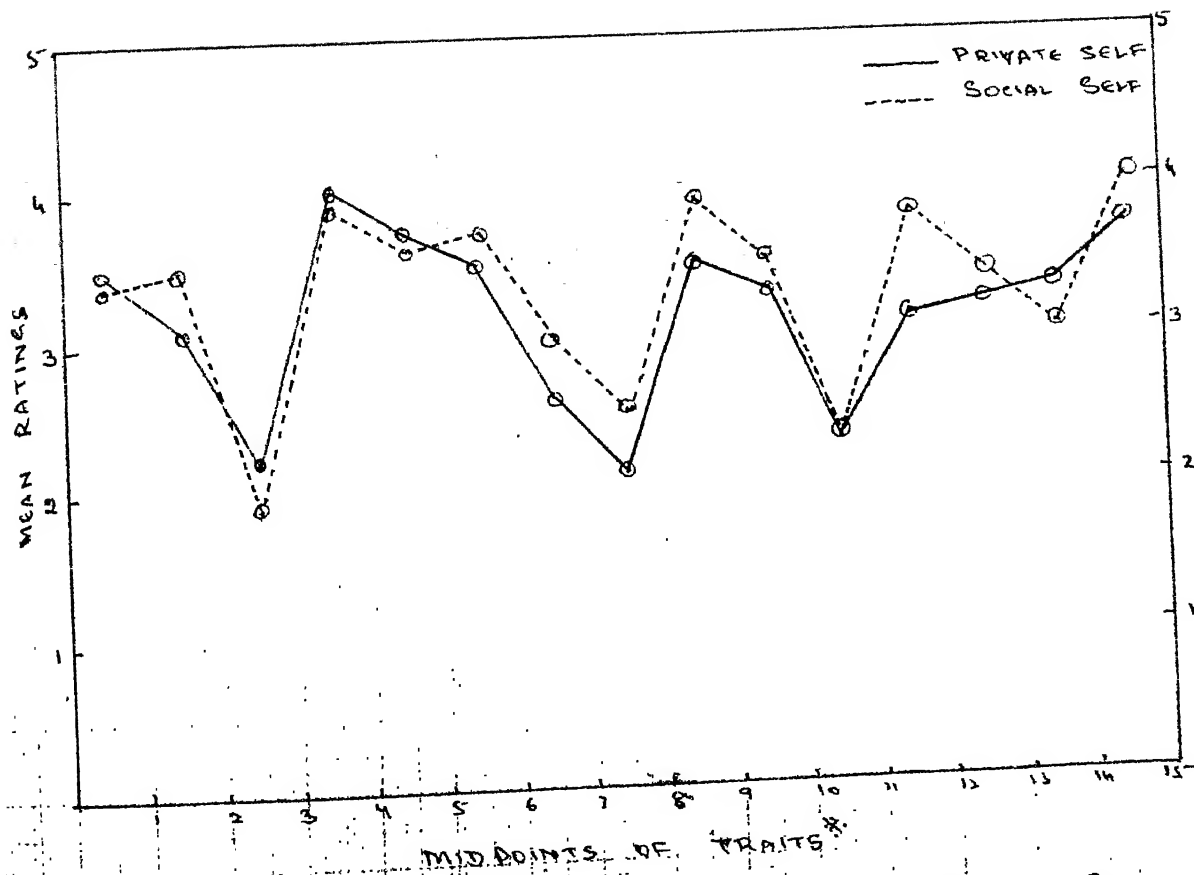FIG. 8. MEAN RATINGS ON PRIVATE AND SOCIAL SELVES.
FEMALES, LOW n ACH

* Please refer to Table used for a description of the traits.

Table 4.16

DISCREPANCY SCORES OF SELF-CONCEPT: (PRIVATE SELF MINUS SOCIAL SELF)

Traits	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
1. Team spirit (S) *		-0.18	-0.16	-0.26	+0.13
2. Popularity (S)		-0.18	-0.23	-0.12	-0.33
3. Jealousy (U)		-0.50	+0.12	+0.32	+0.27
4. Kindness (F)		+0.15	+0.39	0.00	+0.07
5. Obedience (U)		+0.12	+0.17	+0.60	+0.13
6. Impulsiveness (U)		0.00	+0.60	+0.19	-0.15
7. Physically attractive (F)		-0.37	-1.72	-0.18	-0.40
8. Destructiveness(U)		-0.56	-0.60	-0.60	-0.47
9. Prestige (S)		-0.12	-0.22	+0.44	+0.40
10. Sociability (S)		0.00	-0.54	+0.57	-0.20
11. Inferiority (U)		-0.25	-0.05	+1.06	0.00
12. Intelligence (F)		0.00	-0.58	-0.69	-0.74
13. Persuasiveness(S)		+0.12	-0.17	+0.19	-0.20
14. Control over emotion (F)		+0.60	+0.12	-0.18	+0.38
15. Honesty (F)		+0.19	-0.23	-0.25	-0.54

*S = Social Traits;   U = Unfavourable Traits;
F = Favourable Traits

Table 4.17

MEAN DISCREPANCY ON SELF CONCEPT (PRIVATE SELF - SOCIAL SELF)

Scores	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		-0.98	-2.71	-0.89	-1.48
SD		0.20	0.15	0.14	0.13
p		<.01		<.01	

findings on the discrepancy scores of positive and negative traits (Table 4.16). The number of negative discrepancies on positive traits was more in the case of persons with low n Achievement both in the males and females. The number of negative discrepancies on negative traits was more in the case of high n Ach group.

SUMMARY (DIMENSION C: EGO MEASURE):

The findings in this area suggested that the high n Achievement seemed to go with a self concept consisting of (a) impulsiveness, (b) self-respect, (c) sociability, and (d) honesty.

The self concept described by (a) kindness and, (b) obedience was found to be related with the low amount of n Achievement.

The subjects with a high need for Achievement showed a tendency for being self-critical. This was absent in case of those who were low on n Ach.

Individuals possessing a high need for achievement seemed to have less fear of being under-estimated by others, whereas those who were low on n Ach expressed a greater amount of such fear.

D. COMFORT-DISCOMFORT :ANXIETY:

The hypothesis was that because of the less fear of failure in a person with high need Achievement, the anxiety level and the need for Achievement would be inversely related to each other.

On the Sinha Anxiety Scale the mean scores of the male subjects with high n Ach were 24.88 and those of low n Ach, 31.33. (Table 4.18). In case of females, those possessing high n Achievement scored 33.94 while those with low n Ach obtained a score of 30.06.

The t value of mean difference was 1.13 in the case of males (df 31; P > .10).

Although the mean difference was not significant, the results indicated the trends : amongst males the relationship between anxiety and n Achievement was in the predicted direction. In case of females, however, the findings were opposite.

The Figure 3 shows the mean anxiety scores of the subjects.

Table 4.18

ANXIETY SCORES

Scores	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
MEAN		24.88	31.35	33.94	30.06
SD		15.59	16.00	18.59	16.61
SE_M		3.35	4.57	4.57	4.29

The Anxiety Scores and the n Ach scores of 33 males and 66 females were correlated with a view to discovering the relationship between the two. The Product-Moment coefficients of correlation were -.39 for
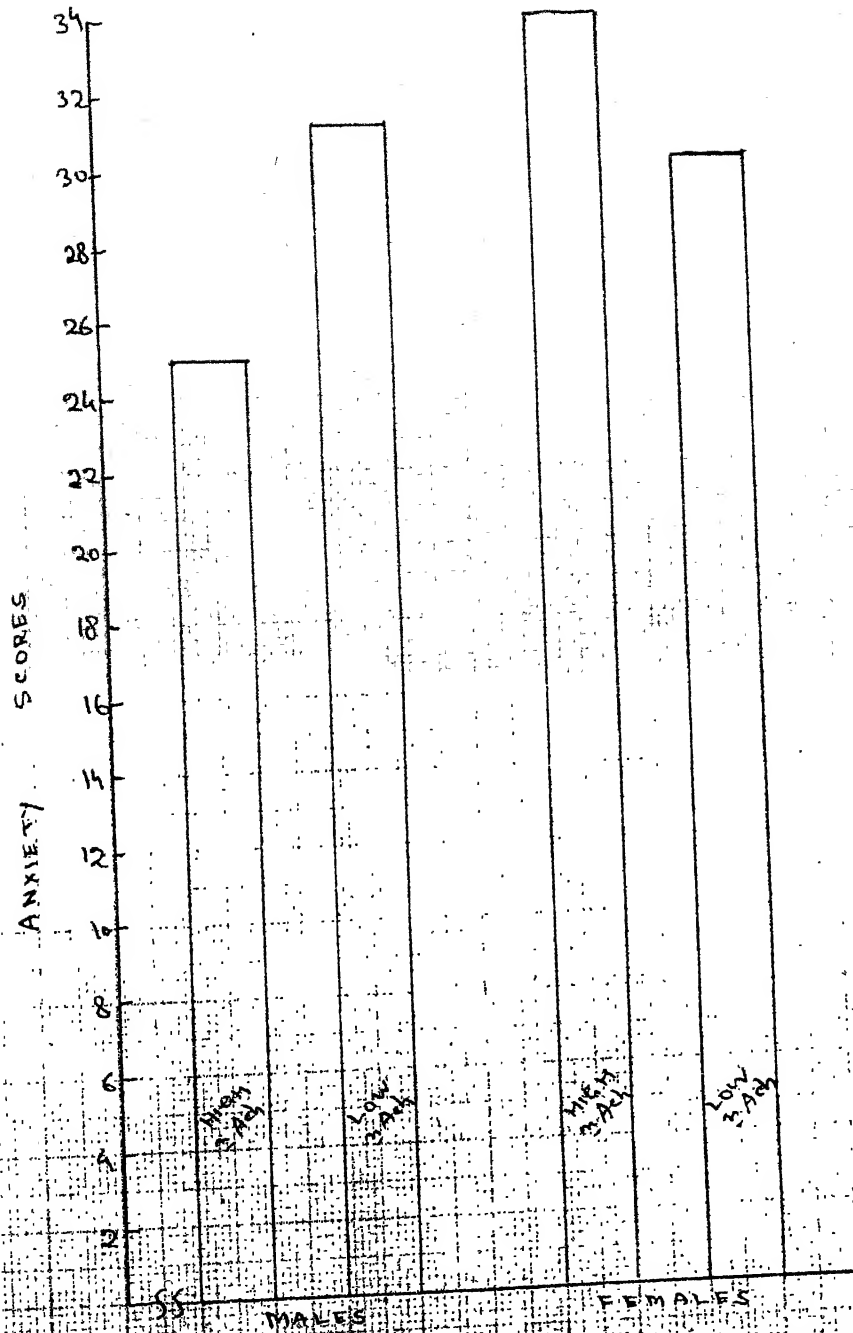
FIG. 9 Mean Anxiety Scores

males and .03 for females (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19

PRODUCT MOMENT COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN
n ACH AND ANXIETY SCORES

r	Ss	MALES (n = 53)	FEMALES (n = 66)
r		-.30	-.03

SUMMARY (DIMENSION-D: COMFORT-DISCOMFORT):

The results suggested that the males with high
n Achievement possessed less anxiety while those with
low n Ach expressed more anxiety.

Though the differences were statistically not
significant, they tended to support the view that there
was an inverse relationship between the need for Achieve-
ment and level of anxiety.

Coefficients of correlation between the anxiety
scores and n Ach scores were -.30 and .03 among the males
and the females respectively.

PERSONALITY PATTERNS

The criterion groups were also compared for the
personality patterns they projected through the well-
known tests : the Rorschach Test and the TAT.

A. THE RORSCHACH TEST:

It was decided to study the criterion groups
in terms of the following Rorschach categories :(i)Total R,
(ii) W, D, Dd, (iii)Approach, (iv) Movement, (v)
Experience Type, (vi) Content (H, Hd, A, Ad), (vii)
F per cent, (viii) F+per cent, and the (ix) W : M ratio.
The theoretical considerations underlying the concept of
n Ach prompted the selection of these indices on the
Rorschach Test.

Since the number of responses varied from subject
to subject and also from one group to another, it was
considered advisable to treat each category value in terms
of its percentage of the total R of each group. The total
number of responses produced by the extreme groups was :
299 (males, high n Ach); 190 (males, low n Ach); 220
(females, high n Ach); and 247 (females, low n Ach).

(i) TOTAL R:

It was found that amongst males, those possessing
high need Achievement produced more responses than
those who were low on n Ach (Table 4.20). The average
number of responses produced by the two groups was 18.69
and 11.88 respectively. The mean difference was statis-
tically significant at the .05 level. (t = 2.41; df = 51).

In case of females, however, the trend was
opposite. Those having high n Achievement gave less
responses (15.71 than the ones low on it (17.64). The mean
difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.20

AVERAGE NUMBER OF RESPONSES ON THE RORSCHACH TEST

Scores	Ss MALES High (n=16)	Low (n=16)	FEMALES High (n=14)	Low (n=14)
MEAN	18.69	11.88	15.71	17.64
SD	11.04	2.81	6.24	8.18
p	<.05		-	

(11) W, D, Dd:

The males with high need Achievement gave 30.77 per cent W responses as against 38.95 per cent in case of males who were low on n Ach (significant at .05 level). (Table 4.21).

Table 4.21

RESPONSES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO LOCATION ON THE RORSCHACH TEST
(IN PER CENT)

Location	Ss MALES High	Low	FEMALES High	Low
W	30.77 (20.00)*	38.95 (20.00)	24.54 (20.00)	21.86 (20.00)
D	65.89 (66.67)	55.79 (66.67)	72.27 (66.67)	72.06 (66.67)
Dd	3.34 (13.33)	5.26 (13.33)	3.18 (13.33)	6.07 (13.33)

*Figures within brackets refer to the expected frequencies of each category according to the Beck formula : 8-20-4. (Beck, 1944, p.84).

Amongst the female subjects, the high n Ach group produced more W's (24.54 per cent) than the low n Ach group (21.86 per cent).

The D responses were more frequently given by the male high n Ach group (65.89 per cent) than the low n Ach group (55.79 per cent). The differences were significant at .05 level.

The female sample did not differ in terms of D's. Both the high and low groups produced a similar number (72.27 and 72.06 per cent respectively) of D responses. Both in the case of males and females, the high n Ach subjects tended to produce less Dd's than the low n Ach subjects.

(iii) APPROACH:

To study the approach the expected frequencies were computed according to the Beck's formula : 6-20-4 (Beck, 1944, p.84).

Table 4.22

SUBJECTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE
APPROACH ON THE RORSCHACH TEST

Ss	Approach	W	D	Dd
MALES	High	W!	D	(Dd)
	Low	W!	(D)	(Dd)
FEMALES	High	W!	D!	(Dd)
	Low	W!	D!	(Dd)

In both males and females high as well as low
n Ach groups there was an underemphasis on Dd's and
overemphasis on W's (Table 4.22). The D's were over-
emphasized by the female high and low n Ach subjects.
In males, D's were normal in the case of high n Ach cases,
and underemphasized in the case of subjects low on need
Achievement.

(iv) MOVEMENT:

Table 4.23 shows that both in the case of males
and females, subjects high on n Ach produced significantly
more M and FM than those who scored low on it.

Table 4.23

MOVEMENT RESPONSES ON THE RORSCHACH
TEST
(IN PER CENT)

Responses	Se MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
M	8.69	4.21	11.36	4.45
FM	10.03	4.74	4.54	5.68
m	0.33	-	0.45	0.40

In males, high and low n Ach groups the figures
for M were 8.69 and 4.21 per cent and for FM 10.03 and
4.74 per cent respectively. The corresponding figures
in the case of females were 11.36 and 4.45 per cent for
M, and 4.54 and 5.68 for FM.

(v) EXPERIENCE BALANCE:

The experience balance was M C in case of male high and low n Ach subjects. (Table 4.24). In case of females, it was M C for the high n Ach subjects and M C in the case of subjects who were low on need Achievement.

Table 4.24

EXPERIENCE TYPE ON THE RORSCHACH TEST

Ss	Exp. Type	M : $\leq$ C	Pattern
MALES	High	1.63 : 0.50	M > C
	Low	0.50 : 0.31	M > C
FEMALES	High	1.78 : 0.28	M > C
	Low	0.78 : 0.89	M < C

(vi) CONTENT:

Table 4.25 shows that H was produced more by subjects with high need Achievement both in males and females. Similarly, Hd too was given more frequently by those possessing high n Ach than those who were low on it. The amount of A was equal in the male criterion groups (58.79 per cent for the high and 58.95 for low). In the case of females, A was produced more by the high n Ach group (57.27 per cent) than by the low n Ach group (55.45 per cent). The males with high need

Achievement gave less Ad than those with low n Ach.

The figures being 1.67 and 2.11 per cent respectively.

In females the trend was reversed. Subjects with high

n Ach produced more Ad (5.00 per cent) than those who

were low on it (3.24 per cent).

Table 4.25

RESPONSES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE
CONTENT ON THE RORSCHACH TEST

(IN PER CENT)

Ss Responses	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
H	17.39	16.84	15.91	10.12
Hd	3.01	6.84	3.64	4.03
A	38.79	38.95	57.27	35.63
Ad	1.67	2.11	3.00	3.24

(vii) F AND F+ PERCENTAGES:

Both the male and female subjects who scored high
on need Achievement obtained lower F percentage than those
who were low on n Ach. (Table 4.26). The F percentage was
69.89 for male high group and 81.05 for the low group
(difference significant at .01 level). The corresponding
figures in the case of females were 74.09 and 78.50.

The F+ Percentage was lower in the case of males
with high need Achievement (51.25) than males low on
n Ach (63.94) (difference significant at .01 level). In

Table 4.26

RESPONSES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FORM ON THE RORSCHACH TEST

(IN PER CENT)

Responses	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
F		69.89	81.05	74.09	78.50
F +		51.23	63.94	63.76	68.08

females too, those who scored high on n Ach had lower F+ percentage (63.76) than those who were low on it (68.08).

Table 4.27 presents the ratio between the W and the M responses. The male high n Ach subjects yielded a W:M ratio of 3.54:1 while low n Ach subjects produced a ratio of 9.25:1. In case of females, the differences were not large though the same trend was noted. The subjects with high n Ach had a ratio of 2.16:1 while those with low n Ach obtained a ratio of 4.91:1.

Table 4.27

RATIO OF W:M ON THE RORSCHACH TEST

Ss		Responses		
		W	:	M
MALES	High	3.54	:	1.00
	Low	9.25	:	1.00
FEMALES	High	2.16	:	1.00
	Low	4.91	:	1.00

The Figures 10 to 12 show the results on the Rorschach Test.

SUMMARY (PERSONALITY PATTERNS : THE RORSCHACH INK BLOT TEST)

The Rorschach Test differentiated between the criterion groups as follows : Males possessing high amount of n Achievement were marked by (a) greater productivity, (b) less W's, and, more D's, (c) more M responses, (d) greater number of H and Hd in Content, (e) lower F %, (f) lower F+ %, and almost normal W:M ratio.

In case of female subjects often the results were inconsistent.

B. THE THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST:

Like the responses on the Rorschach Test the TAT stories were analyzed in terms of the total number of stories produced by each group. There were 144 stories produced by the male high n Ach group, and 162 by the low n Ach group. In the case of females, subjects high on need Achievement produced 144 stories while those who were low on it, produced 135 stories. Following the Verhaus system of analysis, the TAT responses were analyzed for the following categories : I.Ways of Handling Materials : (a)type of story, (b)treatment of story, (c)length of story, (d)addition or change in story, (e)indication of ambivalence or indecision; II.Emotional Aspects : (a)prevailing mood of the story; III.Central-
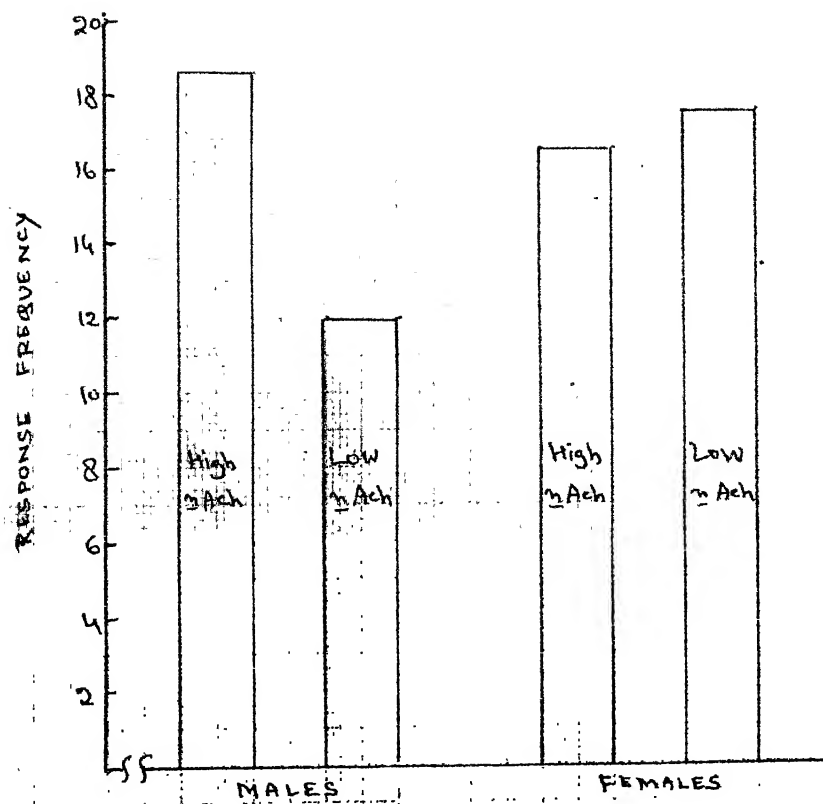
FIG. 10. MEAN PRODUCTIVITY ON THE RORSCHACH TEST
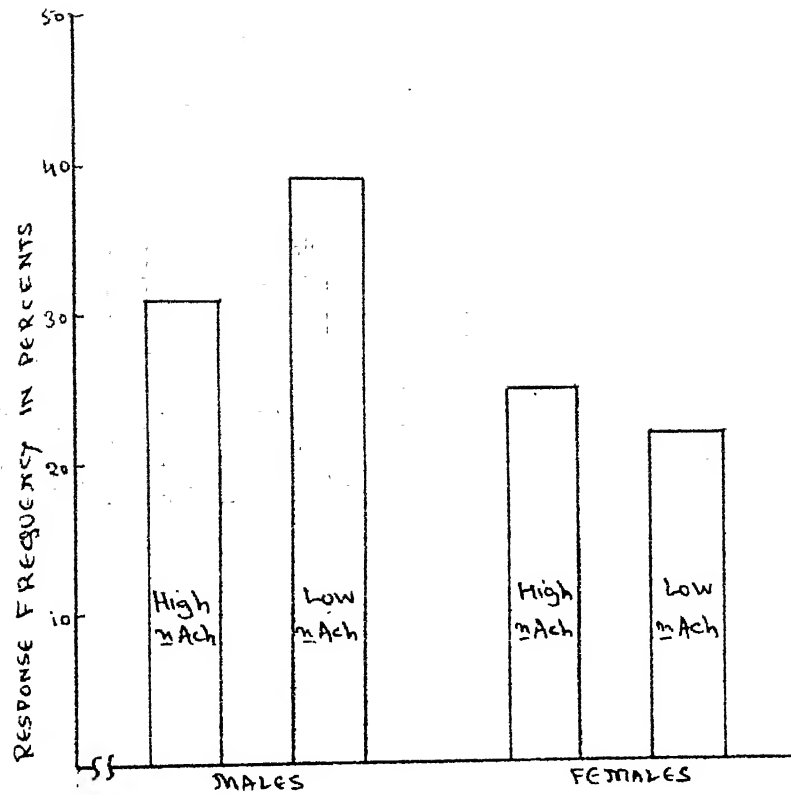
FIG. 11. WHOLE RESPONSES ON THE RORSCHACH TEST
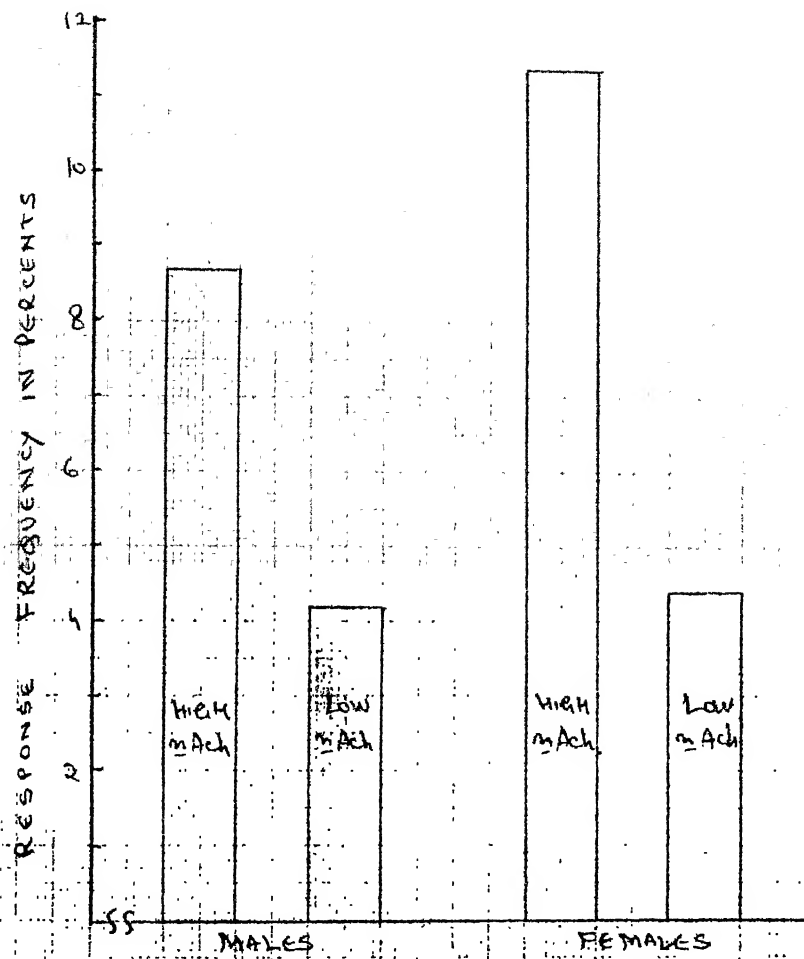
FIG 12. M RESPONSES ON THE ROBSCHACH TEST

Figure Environment Relations : (a)relationships pictured,
(b)situation in relation to central figure, and IV.Central
Figure Intrapersonal Situation : (a)description of the
positive central figure.

I. WAYS OF HANDLING MATERIALS.

(a) TYPE OF STORY:

Table 4.28 summarizes the results in this area.
This category was subdivided into (a) real and (b) fantasy.
If the situation pictured was interpreted as a dream or
vision, it was scored as a fantasy story.

As many as 69.00 per cent stories of the male
high n Ach group and 71.92 per cent the low n Ach group
were of a real nature. The difference was not signifi-
cant. The corresponding figures for the female subjects
were 93.84 (high n Ach) and 65.12 (low n Ach). This
difference was significant at .01 level.

The stories of the fantasy type were more frequen-
tly given by the high n Ach group in the case of males
and by the low n Ach group in case of females. In both
the sexes, differences were statistically significant.

Table 4.28

TAT STORIES : WAYS OF HANDLING
MATERIALS
(IN PER CENT)

Categories	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
TYPE				
Real	69.00	71.92	93.84	62.12
Fantasy	19.32	10.54	4.14	26.86
TREATMENT				
Descriptive	26.91	51.00	24.84	28.12
Static	24.15	56.58	8.28	10.36
Dynamic	45.47	18.60	64.86	55.50
LENGTH				
Short	49.68	77.50	35.19	29.60
Long	46.23	9.30	60.72	63.64
ADDITIONS	15.28	4.52	7.64	12.59
AMBIVALENCE				
Narrator	16.67	15.58	25.61	14.81
Central Figure	6.25	4.52	6.94	15.55

(b) TREATMENT OF STORY:

A TAT story, according to Verhaus, may be des-
criptive, static or dynamic. A descriptive story was
centred around a mere enumeration of people or objects
shown in the card. In a static treatment, the story
was told but nothing happened during the course of the
story suggesting a change in the situation depicted.
Finally, a dynamic treatment changed the theme and made
it more interesting during the course of the story.

The stories of a descriptive nature were more frequent in the case of males low n Ach subjects (31.00 per cent) than in case of the subjects high on need Achievement (26.91 per cent). The difference was not significant. In females too the same trend was visible.

The frequency of static stories was more among the subjects who were low on need Achievement than those who were high on it. The figure being 24.15 per cent and 36.58 per cent in case of males high and low n Ach groups respectively (significant at .05 level); and 8.28 and 10.36 per cent in case of females high and low subjects respectively (not significant).

The dynamic stories were produced more frequently by the members of the high n Ach male subjects : 43.47 per cent) than the low n Ach subjects (18.60). The difference was significant at the .01 level.

(c) LENGTH OF THE STORY:

A story consisting of 100 or more than 100 words was termed as a long story. Stories comprising less than 100 words were treated as short.

The stories short in length were more frequently given by the low n Ach group in case of males (77.50 per cent) than by the high n Ach group (49.68 per cent). The difference was significant at .01 level.

Similarly, long stories were produced more frequently by the male subjects high on need Achievement

(46.23 per cent) than by those who were low on it
(9.30 per cent). The difference was significant at
.01 level.

(d) ADDITION OR CHANGE IN THE STORY:

If the story-teller introduced any character or
modified it in any of the situations pictured, it was
scored in this category. In the case of males, additions
were made more frequently by the high n Ach group (15.28
per cent) than the subjects who were low on n Ach (4.32
per cent). The difference was significant at the .05
level. In case of females the trend was reversed. Addition
or change was more frequently observed in the subjects
who were low on n Ach (12.59 per cent) than those who
possessed high n Ach (7.64 per cent). Difference, however,
was not significant.

(e) INDICATION OF AMBIVALENCE OR INDECISION:

Ambivalence or indecision could either be on the
part of the narrator or on the part of the central
figure. When the story teller was unable to decide
between the different forms of alternatives in relation
to the situation pictured, it was termed as "ambivalence
on the part of narrator". When the story teller placed
the central figure in a situation where the latter
(the central figure) was unable to decide between a
set of alternatives, it was called "ambivalence on the
part of central figure".

The narrator-ambivalence was more in the case of stories produced by the males with high n Ach (16.67 per cent) than the ones with low n Ach (13.58 per cent). The difference was statistically not significant. In the case of females too, stories marked by ambivalence on the part of narrator were more frequent among the high n Ach subjects (23.61 per cent) than those with low n Achievement (14.81 per cent). This difference was significant at .05 level.

The central-figure ambivalence was more frequent in the male high n Ach group (6.25 per cent) than in the male low n Ach group (4.32 per cent). The difference was significant at .05 level. The trend was reversed in the case of females. Stories with central figure ambivalence were more frequent in the subjects who scored low on need Achievement (13.33 per cent) than the ones of the high n Ach group (6.94 per cent). This difference too was found to be significant at .05 level.

II. EMOTIONAL ASPECTS.

Table 4.29 presents the results related to this area.

(a) PREVAILING MOOD OF THE STORY:

The sub-divisions of this category need no comment.

Stories were drab more frequently in the high n Ach groups than those of the low n Ach. This was true

Table 4.29

TAT STORIES : EMOTIONAL ASPECTS
(IN PER CENT)

Category	Se MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
PREVAILING MOOD OF THE STORY:				
Drab	29.86	25.31	22.92	17.04
Exciting	15.97	6.79	4.17	14.81
Happy	11.11	6.17	13.89	6.67
Unhappy	25.00	20.37	22.92	34.81
Angry	-	-	-	-
Conciliatory	-	-	-	-
Guilty	0.69	1.23	4.17	0.74
Terrifying	3.47	6.79	2.78	2.96
Suspenseful	2.78	3.09	4.86	2.22
Frustrating	2.78	8.02	17.36	9.62

in case of both males and females. The difference,
however, was not significant. The stories with an exciting
mood were more frequently given by the male subjects
with high need Achievement (15.97 per cent). This difference
was significant at .01 level. The females showed the
opposite trend. More stories of the low n Ach group
(4.17 per cent) were marked by an exciting mood. The
difference was significant at .01 level. Females with
high n Ach produced significantly more (at .05 level)

stories with a happy mood than the females who were low on it. In the males, the number of stories with a frustrating mood was significantly more (.05 level) among the low n Ach subjects than the ones scoring high on it.

III. CENTRAL FIGURE VERSUS ENVIRONMENT RELATIONS.

(a) RELATIONSHIPS PICTURED:

It may be seen from the Table 4.50 that 19.52 per cent stories of the male high n Ach group and 10.54 per cent of the male low n Ach group were centred around the family relationships. The difference was significant at .05 level. Among the female subjects, more stories of the low than of the high n Ach subjects are based on family relationships, the figures being 54.78 and 24.84 per cent respectively. The difference being significant at .05 level. The trend was opposite the females, though the difference was statistically insignificant.

Females with low n Ach produced a significantly greater number of stories than their counterparts with high n Ach depicting love relationships and relationships which were of a vague nature.

(Table 4.50 on the next page)

(b) SITUATION IN RELATION TO CENTRAL FIGURE:

In terms of the situation depicted in relation to the central figure, the latter was placed in a favourable situation in 22.08 per cent of the stories by the

Table 4.30

TAT STORIES : CENTRAL FIGURE-ENVIRONMENT
(IN PER CENT)

Se Categories	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
RELATIONSHIPS PICTURED:				
Family	19.32	10.54	24.84	34.78
Love	15.37	18.60	34.50	18.50
Social	35.83	25.42	19.32	26.86
Vague	10.35	8.06	14.49	8.14
SITUATION IN RELATION TO CENTRAL FIGURE :				
Favourable	22.08	20.46	15.18	10.36
Unfavourable	52.44	41.54	75.14	70.30

male subjects of the high n Achievement group. As against this 20.46 per cent of the stories in case of female low n Ach group placed the central figure in a favourable situation. The difference was insignificant. In 15.18 per cent stories of the females high n Ach subjects and 10.36 per cent of the low n Achievement groups, the central figure was placed in favourable situation. The difference was not significant.

In 52.44 per cent and 41.54 per cent stories, male high and low n Ach groups respectively placed the central figure in an unfavourable situation. The difference was significant at .05 level.

IV. CENTRAL FIGURE VERSUS INTRAPERSONAL SITUATION.

(a) DESCRIPTION OF THE POSITIVE CENTRAL
    FIGURE:

Table 4.31 gives the per cent stories classified according to the description of the positive central figure.

Table 4.31

TAT STORIES : CENTRAL FIGURE-INTRAPERSONAL
SITUATION
(IN PER CENT)

Sx Category	MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
CHARACTERISTICS ASCRIBED TO CENTRAL FIG.:				
Ambitious	13.11	4.96	6.90	11.10
Successful	24.84	4.96	5.52	0.74
Good	26.22	12.40	22.77	26.64
Outgoing	-	-	0.69	-
Creative	-	-	0.69	-
Self-directing	-	-	-	-
Reasonable	0.69	0.62	5.45	2.96

It may be seen that in 13.11 per cent stories given by the male subjects scoring high on n Ach and in 4.96 per cent stories given by the male low n Ach subjects, the positive central figure was described as ambitious. The difference was significant at .01 level. In the case of females, 6.90 per cent stories of the high and 11.10 per
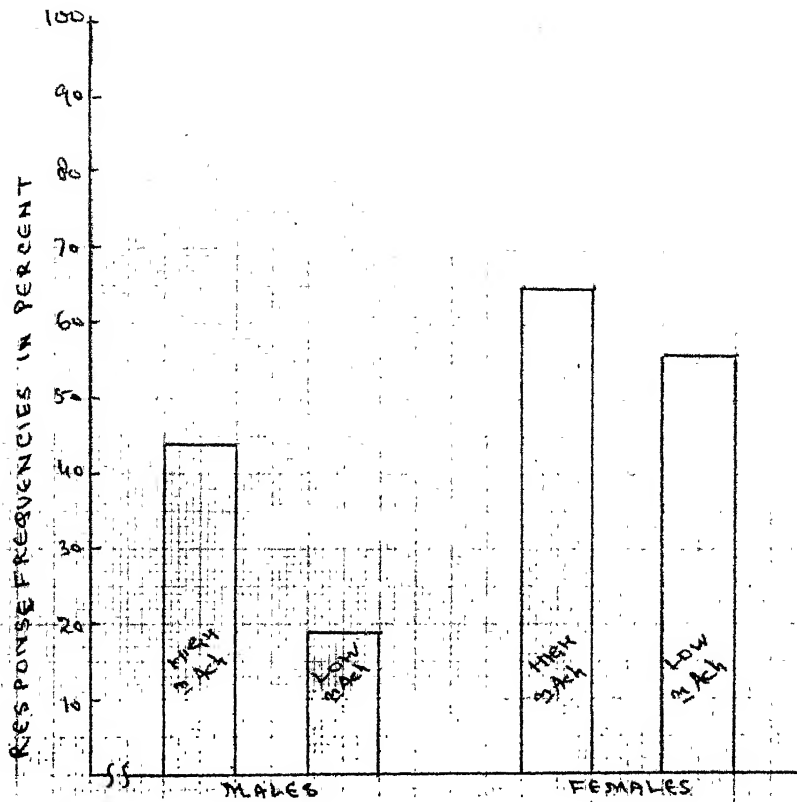
FIG. 13. DISTRIBUTION OF DYNAMIC TYPE OF STORIES ON THE TAT
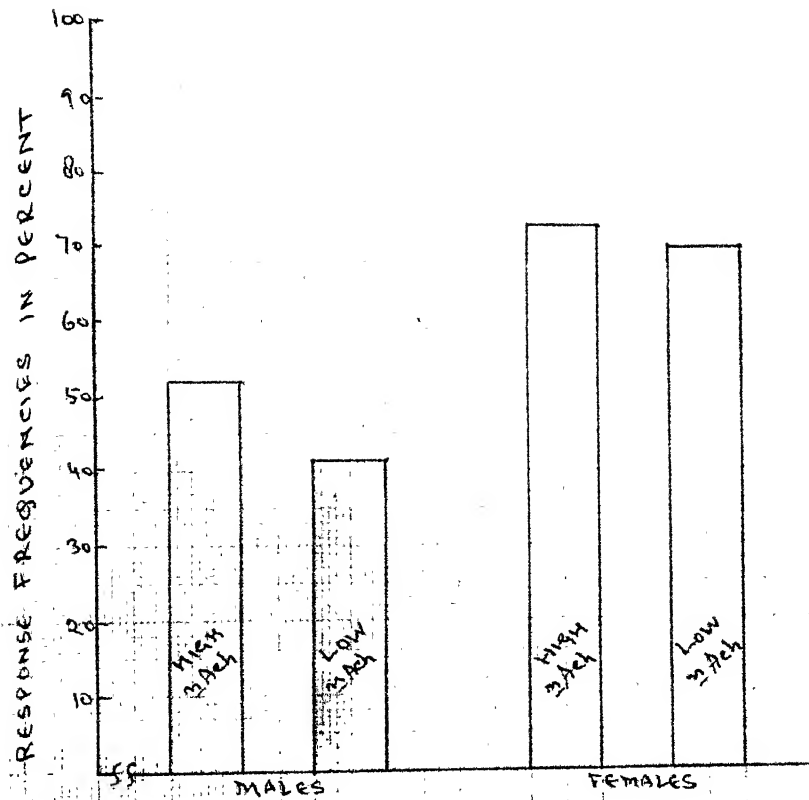
FIG. 14. STORIES DEPICTING UNFAVOURABLE
SITUATION IN RELATION TO CENTRAL FIG.
ON THE TAT
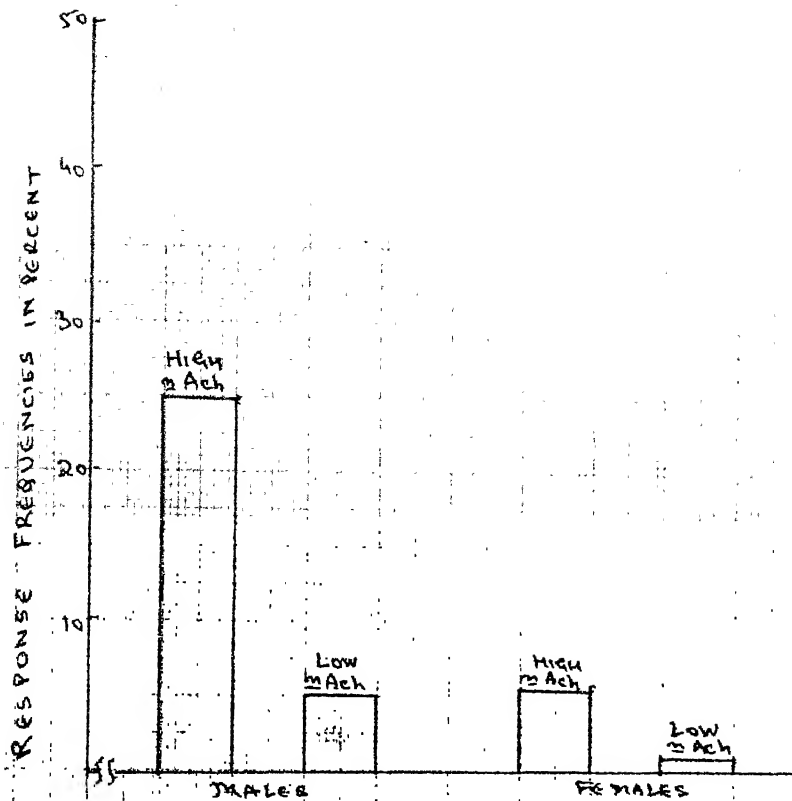
FIG. 15. TAT STORIES SHOWING CENTRAL FIG. AS SUCCESSFUL IN INTER-PERSONAL SITUATIONS

cent stories of the low n Ach subjects described central
figure as ambitious. The difference was significant at
.05 level.

As many as 24.84 per cent stories of the male high
and 4.96 per cent of the male low n Ach groups described
central figure as successful (difference significant at
.01 level). The corresponding figures in case of the
female sample were 5.52 per cent and 0.74 per cent res-
pectively, (difference significant at .01 level).

SUMMARY (PERSONALITY PATTERNS: THE THEMATIC
APPERCEPTION TEST):

Persons with high n Ach appeared to be realistic
(giving greater number of stories with realistic theme),
and imaginative (producing larger number of stories in
which conspicuous additions or changes were made).
Opposite to the hypothesis formulated earlier (Chapter 2)
subjects scoring high on n Ach were characterised by
ambivalence and indecision (producing greater number of
stories with narrator ambivalence and the central-figure
ambivalence).

Finally, high amount of n Achievement seemed to
be related to a favourable perception of the environment,
(producing large number of stories in which central
figure is placed in a favourable environment.

As in case of the Rorschach Test, here too
females often revealed trends just opposite to those of
males.

The Figures 13 to 15 present a graphic representation of the TAT findings.

SYNOPSIS OF THE RESULTS

The main findings of this study, given in Tables 4.32, 4.33, and 4.34, may be stated as follows. These results hold true mainly in the case of male subjects.

It was indicated that the subjects with high
n Ach :

    (a) possessed less amount of authoritarianism;

    (b) made O-D, extrapunitive type of reactions in frustrating situations;

    (c) scored low on level of anxiety;

    (d) thought themselves to be honest, persuasive, impulsive and kind;

    (e) had less fear of being under-estimated by others;

    (f) were more self-critical.

On the Rorschach Test, the individuals with high need Achievement

    (a) produced more R;

    (b) gave more D's, M's and FM's;

    (c) showed less concern with Hd and Ad;

    (d) scored low on F% and F+%;

    (e) obtained almost normal W:M ratio.

On the Thematic Apperception Test, the persons with high n Ach

Table 4.32

SYNOPTIC VIEW OF THE FINDINGS: I
DIMENSIONS AND VARIABLES

Dim. & Variables	Ss MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
A.HUMAN RELATIONS				
AUTHORITARIANISM				
Mean	15.50	16.72	16.93	16.53
SD	2.20	3.54	3.07	3.34
B.INDIVIDUAL-ENV. RELATIONS				
REACTIONS TO FRUS-TRATION				
O-D,e (in per cent)	29.73	23.19	29.24	24.55
O-D,i (" ")	0.67	-	0.42	-
O-D,m (" ")	1.57	0.19	-	0.45
E-D,e (" ")	5.63	11.03	7.84	10.05
E-D,i (" ")	1.80	0.76	6.57	1.34
E-D,m (" ")	8.78	8.75	7.63	14.87
N-P,e (" ")	20.72	24.14	19.49	17.63
N-P,i (" ")	11.73	7.60	6.78	9.82
N-P,m (" ")	19.37	24.33	22.03	21.43
C.COMFORT-DISCOMFORT				
ANXIETY LEVEL				
Mean	24.88	31.35	33.94	30.06
SD	15.39	18.00	18.30	16.61
D.EGO MEASURE				
SELF CONCEPT				

(a) Traits on Pri- (1)Hones- (1)Hones- (1)Honesty (2)Kindness
    vate Self given   ty   ty

    mean ratings of (2)Persua- (2)Kind- (2)Sociabi-
        siveness   ness   lity

    7.75 and above.
        (3)Impul-   (3)Self-respect
        siveness
        (4)Kindness   (4)Impulsive-
                    ness

(b) Discrepancy Score

	High	Low	High	Low
Mean	-0.98	-2.71	0.89	-1.48
SD	0.20	0.15	0.14	0.13

Table 4.33

SYNOPTIC VIEW OF THE FINDINGS : IIa. PERSONALITY PATTERNS
THE RORSCHACH TEST

Variables	Ss	MALES		FEMALES	
		High	Low	High	Low
A.PRODUCTIVITY					
Mean R		18.69	11.88	15.71	17.64
SD		11.04	2.81	6.24	8.18
B.LOCATION					
(a) W (in per cent)		30.77	38.95	24.54	21.86
(b) D (" " ")		65.89	55.79	72.27	72.06
(c) Dd(" " ")		3.34	5.26	3.18	6.07
C.APPROACH		W:D (Dd);	W:(D)(Dd);	W:D:(Dd);	W:D:(Dd)
D.MOVEMENT					
(a) M (in per cent)		8.69	4.21	11.36	4.45
(b) FM(" " ")		10.03	4.74	4.54	5.68
(c) m (" " ")		0.33	-	0.45	0.40
E.EXPERIENCE TYPE		M $>$ C	M $>$ C	M $>$ C	M $<$ C
F.CONTENT					
(a) H (in per cent)		17.39	16.84	15.91	10.12
(b) Hd(" " ")		3.01	6.84	3.64	4.05
(c) A (" " ")		38.79	38.95	37.27	35.63
(d) Ad(" " ")		1.67	2.11	5.00	3.24
G.FORM					
(a) F%		69.89	81.05	74.09	78.50
(b) F+%		51.23	63.94	63.76	68.08
H.W : M RATIO		3.54:1	9.25:1	2.16:1	4.91:1

Table 4.34

SYNOPTIC VIEW OF THE FINDINGS: IIb. PERSONALITY PATTERNS

THE TAT

(RESPONSE FREQUENCIES IN PERCENT)

Variables	Ss MALES		FEMALES	
	High	Low	High	Low
A. WAYS OF HANDLING MATERIALS				
I. TYPE				
Real	69.00	71.92	93.84	65.12
Fantasy	19.32	10.54	4.14	28.86
II. TREATMENT				
Descriptive	26.91	31.00	24.84	28.12
Static	24.15	36.58	8.28	10.36
Dynamic	43.47	18.60	64.86	85.50
III. LENGTH				
Short	49.68	77.50	35.19	29.60
Long	46.23	9.30	60.72	63.64
IV. ADDITIONS	15.28	4.32	7.64	12.59
V. AMBIVALENCE				
Narrator	16.67	13.58	23.61	14.81
Central Figure	6.25	4.32	6.94	13.33
B. EMOTIONAL ASPECTS				
I. PREVAILING MOOD OF THE STORY				
Drab	29.86	25.31	22.92	17.04
Exciting	15.97	6.79	4.17	14.81
Happy	11.11	6.17	13.89	6.67
Unhappy	25.00	20.37	22.92	34.81
Guilty	0.69	1.23	4.17	0.74
Terrifying	3.47	6.79	2.78	2.96
Suspenseful	2.78	3.09	4.86	2.22
Frustrating	2.78	8.02	17.36	9.62
C. CENTRAL FIG.-ENVIRONMENT				
I. RELATIONSHIPS PICTURED				
Family	19.32	10.54	24.84	34.78
Love	15.87	18.60	38.50	18.50
Social	35.88	25.42	19.32	26.86
Vague	10.35	8.06	14.49	8.14
II. SITUATION IN RELATION TO CENTRAL FIGURE				
Favourable	22.08	20.46	15.18	10.36
Unfavourable	52.44	41.54	73.14	70.30
D. CENTRAL FIG.-INTRAPERSONAL SITUATION				
I. QUALITIES ASCRIBED TO CENTRAL FIG.				
Ambitious	13.11	4.96	6.90	11.10
Successful	24.84	4.96	5.52	0.74
Good	26.22	12.40	22.77	26.64
Outgoing	-	-	0.69	-
Creative	-	-	0.69	-
Reasonable	0.69	0.62	3.45	2.96

(a) wrote a large number of short stories of
fantasy, dynamic nature with more additions,
and ambivalence;

(b) gave more stories which were emotionally rich,
and centred around the family and social
relationships;

(c) portrayed the central figure as ambitious,
successful and good who found his environment
as favourable in nature.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

A piece of research may primarily be seen as an exercise in scientific enquiry. It is a game of science, or an act of "sciencing", involving the delicate handling of a set of concepts. Often, it becomes necessary for the researcher to lean heavily upon the support of theoretical constructs, with a view to connecting the observations and the abstract conceptualizations. Research in personality offers an illustrative case of this situation. The field of personality is distinctly marked by its "highly abstract theorizing" (Leeper, 1963, p.369). The credit for a complex nature of theory construction in personality goes mainly to the system of psychoanalysis, not because its conceptualizations emerged from the clinical setting but because it demonstrated the utility of the motivational processes for understanding personality. The emphasis on a dynamic approach to personality was an inevitable stimulant to the growth of hypothetical constructs and theoretical postulates. The theory of personality by Murray (1938) further accentuated the nature and significance of a dynamic approach.

The expression of the physiological needs in the perceptual processes, observed by McClelland and Atkinson in the late forties and the early fifties, served as the paradigm for exploring the possibilities

of arousing the psychological needs and studying the
effects of these needs on perceptual experiences. The
researches that followed in this area reinforced the
validity of the motivational approach to personality,
and also the salient role of one particular need,
namely, the need for Achievement (McClelland et al, 1953).
The n Achievement came to be thought of as a kind of
predisposition contributing towards a person's affec-
tive integration with his performance. As a construct,
it implied the processes by which an individual derived
emotional satisfaction from his accomplishments. Attain-
ment of goals, whether they be big or small, provides
a unity and harmony to the system of behaviour. This
is because the goal attainments are invariably accom-
panied or followed by affective states. In some per-
sons the affect is strong. They are termed as indi-
viduals with a high n Achievement. In others, it is
mild, they are the ones with low a n Achievement.

In regard to the hypothesized relationships
between the need for Achievement and some of the speci-
fic dimensions of personality in this study, it was
postulated (vide Chapter II) that :

(1) the individuals scoring high on n Achieve-
    ment would score low on a measure of
    dominance-submission;

(2) those who were high on need Achievement would

react to frustrating situations in terms
of obstacle-dominance type of reactions,
whereas the ego-defensive reactions may
characterize the persons who scored low on
n Achievement;

(3) the self concept of persons with a high
amount of n Ach will be more unified and
integrated (indicated by low discrepancy
scores) than those who were low on need for
Achievement;

(4) individuals scoring high on n Achievement
would score low on a measure of anxiety.

The hypotheses formulated in regard to the
Rorschach and the TAT correlates of need for Achievement
were as follows.

THE RORSCHACH TEST:

(5) Persons who were high on need Achievement
would produce a greater number of approach
responses (M and FM) and a smaller number of
avoidant responses (F).

(6) The Rorschachs of the subjects with high
n Ach would be marked by a larger number of
W's.

(7) Individuals possessing a low amount of need
Achievement were expected to give a greater
number of the D and the Dd responses.

(8) The total number of the responses would be greater for the subjects with a high n Achievement.

(9) The Experience Balance of the persons with high n Ach would be introversive in nature, i.e. $M > C$.

(10) Persons with a high need for Achievement would produce a normal W:M ratio.

THE THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST:

(11) The stories of the subjects who were high on n Achievement would be realistic, dynamic, lengthy, with more additions and change, and would show a lesser amount of ambivalence either on the part of the narrator or the central figure.

(12) The individuals with a high need for Achievement were anticipated to produce more stories of the exciting and the happy types.

(13) The stories given by the group of subjects with a high n Ach would predominantly show family and social relationships, and would depict the situation as a favourable one in relation to the central figure.

(14) The traits like, ambitious, and successful, were expected to be attributed more frequently to the central figure in the stories of

the individuals who were high on n Achieve-
ment.

In this study, hypotheses 2,3,5,8,10 and 14
were confirmed and the differences were statistically
significant. The relationships postulated in hypo-
theses 1,4,6,11,12 and 13 were obtained in the predic-
ted direction but failed to reach the required level
of confidence. The hypotheses 7 and 9 also could not
be confirmed by the obtained results.

To recapitulate, an individual with a high n
Ach was shown to be less authoritative; less anxious;
reacting to frustration by stressing the obstacles
lying out in the external environment; perceiving him-
self as impulsive, self-respecting, social and honest
individual with a less fear of being under-estimated
by others (i.e., lower discrepancy scores on the self-
concept scale); and imaginative and realistic in goal
setting behaviour.

DIMENSION OF HUMAN RELATIONS

Authoritarianism could be considered as a sig-
nificant dimension of human relationships. In the
academics, the concept was refined by the work of Adorno
et al (1950). They developed the idea of the F-syndrome,
consisting of the following characteristics : (a) con-
ventionalism, (b) authoritarian submission, (c) autho-
ritarian aggression, (d) anti-intraception, (e) superstition

and stereotypy, and (f) power and toughness. Conventionalism is defined as the rigid adherence to the middle class values. Authoritarian submission means, maintaining an uncritical/in regard to the moral

attitude

authorities of the in-group. Authoritarian aggression is a tendency to condemn and reject people who break the conventional values. Anti-intraception involves a rebellion against the tender-minded people. Superstition and stereotypy imply a tendency to believe in fate and think in rigid categories. Finally, power and toughness involve a concern with the strong-weak dimension and an identification with the power figures.

Authoritarianism is more than a mere trait of personality. It is a way of representing one's interpersonal relations. Persons scoring low on this dimension are flexible, easy-to-get-along, willing to concede to the points of view, different from their own. Those who are high on authoritarianism, are just the reverse.

Although the scientific study of authoritarianism began in a politically sensitive climate of the period following the end of the Second World War, it has now developed into a theoretical frame of reference for conceptualizing the problems of interpersonal relations (Rokeach, 1954; Berkowitz, 1960). Well in line with the recent accent on the cognitive approach to social psychological phenomena, Rokeach (1954) worked on the

construct of dogmatism as an independent dimension of behaviour. He defined dogmatism as a cognitive organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality centring round the beliefs about an authority, and providing a structure for attitudes of intolerance and sparing tolerance towards others.

The concept of dogmatism is based on another cognitive conceptualization, namely, the system of beliefs and disbeliefs. Ideas about reality are either placed in the system of beliefs or in the system of disbeliefs. Dogmatism refers to a close organization of these two systems. A dogmatic person, like an authoritarian person, does not possess an elastic frame of reference. He either believes or does not believe. His cognitive activity does not proceed in degrees. It progresses in quanta. Its movement is categorical, not dimensional.

It is in this context that the difference between the dogmatism and the rigidity becomes clear. While dogmatism refers to a closed cognitive structure of the systems of beliefs and disbeliefs, rigidity implies an isolation between these systems.

It is postulated that a dogmatic person (a) would tend to emphasize the difference between the systems of beliefs and disbeliefs, (b) would label information as irrelevant which would be indicating a similarity between the belief and the disbelief systems,

(w) would deny any information that would run counter
to the system of his beliefs, and (d) would be harbour-
ing a set of contradictory ideas, (Rokeach, 1954).
Dogmatism is thus a broader concept than authoritarian-
ism. The latter was initially studies as confined
to the ideological beliefs and attitudes. Dogmatism
is not so narrow a concept in this sense. It includes
both authoritarianism and intolerance. Intolerance
in the area of authoritarianism referred only to ethnic
intolerance. Dogmatism on the other hand covers a
more basic and inclusive idea of intolerance. Dogmatic
intolerance is almost the same as opinionation.

Elucidating the idea of categorization in
judgmental process, Berkowitz (1960) distinguished
between the two kinds of judgmental phenomena : (a)
contrast and (b) assimilation. If an experience is
close to the frame of reference in relation to which it
is judged, it would be assimilated in the already exist-
ing frame of reference. If, however, it is farther
apart from the available frame of reference, it is
kept away from it as a contrast.

The study by Hovland, Harvey and Sherif (1957)
demonstrated the effects of both contrast and assimi-
lation in social judgments. When three different types
of communications dealing each with an attitude strongly
in favour, moderately in favour of, and against,
prohibition, were given to the subjects for evaluation,

the evaluations were determined by the distance between the subjects' own beliefs and the "true" position of the person who communicated a particular viewpoint. There was a tendency to assimilate mild discrepancies between the subjects' own attitudes and the position of the communicator. Similarly, a contrast effect was noted in the case of those subjects whose opinions were markedly different from the ones advocated by the communicator.

It is observed that the effects of contrast and assimilation are a function of another variable, namely, the width of the category in reference to which an experience is evaluated or judged. Thus, in the category of reference, the effect of assimilation will be more evident than the effect of contrast. Visualizing a category as "a set of specifications regarding what (stimuli) will be grouped as equivalent" (Bruner, 1957; p.133), the assimilative effect will vary directly and the contrast effect would vary inversely with the equivalence range of the category.

It may be argued from the above discussion that the individuals with a high need for Achievement tend to have a lesser amount of dogmatism and a greater range of equivalence. In other words, the systems of beliefs and disbeliefs are not isolated tightly from each other. Initial success or failure on a problem

does not lead them to make a substantial increase or decrease in their level of aspiration. They make variations in small degrees rather than jumping off widely. They do not, like the dogmatic persons, have a fancy for contradictions. That is precisely the reason why their equivalence range is broader as compared to those individuals who possess a low amount of need for Achievement. The persons with a high n Achievement always place their goals within their reach, neither too far off from their capacities nor too close to them. Their performance that follows, is, therefore, well within their category specifications and thus assimilated. On the other hand, the goals of those who are low on need Achievement are either very much off their abilities or very close to them. Goal attainments or failures in their case are much away from their judgment categories and thus occupy a position of contrast. As expected from these considerations, in this study, subjects with a high need for Achievement scored lower on authoritarianism than those who were low on n Ach.

Further reasons for an inverse relationship between n Ach and Authoritarianism as found in the present research are not difficult to seek. Individuals with a high n Ach are not interested in using their fellow-beings as means for some end. They are concerned with deriving emotional satisfaction out of their accomplishments. Such persons do emphasize and appreciate a

climate of competitiveness. They want to feel that they are doing better than "the others". This accelerates in them a feeling of achievement, a pride in accomplishment, a satisfaction of success.

A high need for Achievement means a strong desire for a sense of Achievement. An individual with high n Ach is not interested in achieving something at the expense of others but in achieving something along with "others". The term "others" implies the other individuals as well as the past achievements of the person himself. Both of these serve as the standards of excellence against which his present performance is evaluated. Individuals possessing a high amount of n Achievement do not want to dominate others, nor do they want to depend upon them. Those who are low on n Ach, however, have little to do with the sense of Achievement. They may not mind being dominated by others or being used by others as tools for getting satisfaction. For the person with a high n Ach the focus of interest lied in the task. For him, people involved in a task are of secondary importance. For the persons with a low n Ach, the vital interest lies in the people. The task in which they are engaged is of subsidiary importance.

Another reason for an inverse relationship between n Ach and Authoritarianism found in this study comes to light by the researches of Winterbottom (1958),

Adorno et al (1950), Rokeach (1948), and Brown (1955).
Winterbottom (1958) found out that the persons with a
high n Achievement were reared in the families where
they were trained to be independent at an earlier age
as compared to those who had low achievement motiva-
tion. McClelland (1956) pointed out that the children
brought up in the authoritarian families were not ex-
pected to have a high n Achievement. This was because
the kind of childhood training stressed in such families
aimed at getting relieved from looking after the child,
a kind of 'don't care' attitude. Training a child to
make his own bed, eat or dress by himself involves not
much to stimulate him to have pride in his accomplishments,
as trying to make him efficient so that the parents do
not have to bother with him. Winterbottom's findings
that achievement motivation was positively related to the
training in independence must be qualified by adding
McClelland's observation that independence was not to
be equated with authoritarianism. The latter refers
to the adherence to conventional middle class values.

According to the results reported by Adorno et al
(1950) there were marked differences in the patterns
of discipline prevalent in families of subjects with
high and low authoritarianism. In the case of more
authoritarian persons there was stress on harsh appli-
cation of the conventional rules, and disciplining was

done in the form of harsh and threatening punishment
for breaking these rules. The persons with low autho-
ritarianism were less severe and "the parents more
often made an effort to explain the issues to the child,
thus enabling him to assimilate the discipline"
(Sanford, 1956, p.306, p.306-307). Adorno et al (1950)
discovered that high authoritarian children were brought
up by the parents who were concerned with superficial
adherence to conventional rules. Children, on the other
hand, were unable to understand the demands made upon
them but were, nevertheless, afraid to displease their
parents. Whatever, therefore, could not fit into the
rigid values, was isolated from the rest of the perso-
nality and was made "ego-alien". The authoritarian
families always forced the child to remain dependent
upon them for seeking approval and receiving punishment.
Obviously, the authoritarian way of life cannot be expec-
ted to stimulate a desire for experiencing pride in
accomplishment. The reason is that authoritarianism
seldom refers to any sense of independence or accom-
plishments. It is simply conforming to the rigid values.
It means rigidity. Rokeach (1948) and Brown (1953)
investigated the relationship between authoritarianism
and rigidity and found the two were positively related.
Brown's study, however, revealed another finding, of
course, in conformity with the theory of authoritarianism,

that ethnocentrism and rigidity were positively related
only if the subjects were confronted with an ego-involving
situation, that is, when they knew that their performance
was being evaluated against some standards. Because of
the lack of independence in them the fear of failure was
greater than the hope of success. This study showed that
the achievement motivation and authoritarianism were nega-
tively related to each other. The subjects with low n
Achievement had higher F scores.

The finding of this study that n Ach and Authori-
tarianism varied inversely with each other could therefore
be not taken as an artefact.

DIMENSION OF COMFORT-DISCOMFORT

Of all the emotional states of an organism, anxiety
is marked by its distinctive character by successfully
eluding all the efforts to localize it. It is a diffuse
state of a person with a tense and an indicisive pattern
of behaviour. Anxiety as such is not pathological and
is unavoidable in life; (Freud, 1926).

The term anxiety could be understood as a cons-
truct devised to refer to a process by which an individual
acquires a state of readiness to react to, and a hypersen-
sitivity for, some vague and undefined stimulus of his
environment. It is a response to his anticipated fear
of something he is unable to localize. An anxious person

is analogous to a soldier in an operation area, who is always on his guard lest the enemy caught him unawares, but who does not know where the enemy is, nor he does try to find him out. He is all prepared. Just in case.

A moderate amount of anxiety serves a number of useful functions. It enables a person to mobilize his energy and resources to deal effectively with the anticipated danger. "Be on guard", "Be watchful", "Be careful", "Tighten your seat belts" are some of the expressions commonly used to make individuals more efficient, alert, and effective in dealing with certain specific contingencies. That much amount of anxiety is something which is expected, accepted, and tolerated. In almost all situations calling upon an individual to behave, anxiety-producing signals tend to reorganize these efforts toward an effective performance. Anxiety-signals act like a challenge to the individual. A challenge to the effect that if he did not try his best, he may prove to be a failure. They command him to do well. This is the dynamo-genic component of anxiety, which prompted workers in this field to postulate a drive theory of anxiety (Taylor, 1956). Anxiety as such is not a drive in the sense in which there are the drives of hunger, thirst, power, or prestige. It is a force which raises the level of a drive. It functions like a dynamo which provides electrical energy as much for lighting a bulb as for running a fan. "In situations in which a number of competing

response tendencies are evoked, only one of which is
correct, the relative performance of high and low drive
groups will depend upon the number and comparative
strengths of the various response tendencies" (Taylor,
1956; p.304).

According to this discussion, one might expect
a positive relationship between anxiety and the need for
Achievement. Because, the need for Achievement involves
doing a job well, and the drive-level concept of anxiety
posits that anxiety functions as a motivating factor,
enabling a person to do better than he would do ordinari-
ly. In fact, some evidence does seem to support a
positive relationship between anxiety and need Achievement,
(Thiesen et al, 1965). However, in a number of other
studies there was either no relationship (e.g., Bendig,
1957; Atkinson and Litwin, 1958) or the two were found
to be negatively related with each other (e.g., Raphelson,
1957; Kausler and Trapp, 1958; Raphelson and Moulton,
1958).

The picture may be clearer if one could spell out
the qualifications of the drive theory of anxiety. The
theory suggests that anxiety as a drive tends to increase
the level of performance. This relationship would, however,
hold true only under certain conditions.

To repeat what was said earlier, anxiety would make
a person do well because it makes him mobilize and reorga-
nize his efforts. Implicit in this is the assumption that

the situation in which a person is placed at any given
time is such that he could, if he wanted to, do well.
Anxiety would raise his level of performance only if he
were potentially capable of doing well in that situation.
Suppose there are only two soldiers waiting in a trench,
one of whom has a light machine gun and the other one is
wounded and is unable to fight the enemy. Now, suddenly
when they hear the footsteps of the approaching enemy
soldiers, what could be the reactions of the two soldiers ?
The one who is fit, would grab his machine gun and wait
for the enemy. The one who is injured would become
panicky and may even loose his normal balance.

The drive theory of anxiety, therefore, needs to
specify that the direct relationship between the level
of anxiety and increase in effective performance would
hold true only if the organismic variable of the relation
between the assessed potentialities and the intensity
of the apprehended danger is taken into consideration.

From this could be derived a definition of anxiety.
Anxiety, as usually understood, is not a fear of fear
or a fear of impending danger. On the contrary, it is
the fear of one's anticipated inability to deal with an
apprehended danger. In the context of the need Achievement,
it means that due to the realistic goal setting behaviour
in the case of the persons with a high need for Achieve-
ment, the anxiety would be less. This is because these
individuals do not anticipate that they are unable to

attain their goals. It could,therefore, be expected that the level of anxiety and need for Achievement would be inversely related to each other.

This study suggested that anxiety as a drive level acted as a decelerating factor on $\underline{n}$ Achievement. The individuals scoring high on $\underline{n}$ Ach had a lower level of anxiety, while those who were low on $\underline{n}$ Ach scored high on it. Could this mean that anxiety did not function as a motivating factor in individuals with high $\underline{n}$ Ach ? Or did it imply that anxiety, being a multiplex (Sinha,1965) also included $\underline{n}$ Ach as one of its dimensions ? The argument in favour of the former is based on the view that anxiety is not so much a "fear of fear" as "a fear of failure". People with a high $\underline{n}$ Ach as stated in Chapter 2 engage in goal oriented activities. Since the aim of such persons is to derive maximum satisfaction of achievement, they take care to ensure that the goals which they set are neither too difficult nor too easy to be achieved. They attempt to establish an optimum relationship between their capabilities and the goals. It seems as if these individuals had a correct estimation, (a) of the elasticity of the goals set by them, as well as, (b) of the capacities which they possess. They stretch both of these to maximum, just short of the breaking point, just sufficient to remain in touch with each other. The analogy may appear to have been overdone but that is precisely

the situation in the case of persons with a high n Ach.
They prefer the goals which lie within a range of moderate
difficulty.

Because of this kind of goal setting behaviour
which implies the likelihood of maximum satisfaction of
Achievement, individuals with a high n Ach are motivated
more by a desire for success than by a fear of failure.
Atkinson (1964) argued that like the motive to achieve
success (M_s), there is present in all of us a motive to
avoid failure, (M_f) The higher the motive to achieve
success, lower would be the motive to avoid failure. The
motive to achieve success is decided by an individual's
hope of success, that is, his expectancy of success in
a situation. The expectancy of success may be visualized
as a kind of subjective probability of success (P_s) ranging
from 0.0 to 0.5 to 1.00. Similarly, the motive to
avoid failure is determined by the expectancy of failure
or subjective probability of failure (P_f) again varying
from 0.00 to 1.00. The P_s and P_f are inversely related
to each other so that the sum total of the two is 1.00.
The achievement motivation includes both the expectancy
of success, and the expectancy of failure. In a person
with a high n Achievement the $P_s > P_f$ whereas $P_f > P_s$
in case of the individual with a low n Achievement. Be-
cause of the greater fear of failure, people with a
low achievement need either set up their goals which
are very easy to be achieved, so that the fear of

failure is minimum, or they set up goals which are very difficult to be attained, so that the failure is justified. In both cases, they are guided by a fear of failure rather than hope of success. They are failure-oriented rather than success-oriented. In a study reported in McClelland et al (1953), Atkinson found that the subjects with a low n Achievement recalled fewer interrupted tasks under the ego-involved or achievement oriented condition than under the relaxed condition. People with a high n Achievement set up goals of intermediate difficulty so that the expectancy of success is neither too little to produce anxiety, nor too high to produce indifference and consequently no pride in accomplishment.

Instead of finding a negative relationship between achievement motivation and manifest anxiety as in the present research, some studies have revealed that the two are not related with each other at all. Kausler and Trapp (1958) obtained a correlation of -.30 between n Achievement and Manifest Anxiety Scale. Atkinson and Litwin (1956) reported a correlation of -.19 between n Achievement and Manifest Anxiety. Bendig (1957) also found that the apperceptive measures of n Achievement were not correlated with anxiety scores. Speilberger and Katzenmeyer (1959), however, studied the relationship between the Grade Point Average (GPA) and Manifest Anxiety Scores, and reported an inverse relationship between the two. Sinha (1961) too noted that there was a negative

relationship between manifest anxiety and academic per-
formance. Out of the 6 groups of students in an engi-
neering institution varying in n from 8 (Group IA) to
85 (Group IV), excepting for the two groups, there was
either no,or a negative, relationship between manifest
anxiety and academic performance. The pooled coefficient
of correlation between anxiety and academic grades was
                                  was
-.155 (t = 4.82) which significant at .01 level of confi-
dence. Mahone's data also indicate an inverse relationship
between achievement motivation and manifest anxiety
(Mahone, 1960). Similar trends may be seen in the study
done by Atkinson and O'Conner reported in Atkinson (1964).

The reason for inconsistent findings regarding
the relationship between n Ach and anxiety may be under-
stood if n Achievement could be considered as a dimension
of anxiety. After all, a person desirous of a feeling
of achievement is keen on having it. He might as well
be anxious for having it. The idea that the ill-planned
or casually set goals would affect adversely the chances
of a feeling of Achievement, may set in the individual
a state of anxiety. This kind of anxiety may be termed
as the "Achievement Anxiety", in line with the "Manifest
Anxiety" or the "Test Anxiety". Achievement anxiety may
be visualized as a fear in relation to the goal-oriented
behaviour. It is inversely related to the need for
Achievement. The higher the achievement anxiety, lower
would be the chances of experiencing a pride of accom-

plishment, a sense of satisfaction.

The above argument may be criticised by saying that n Achievement itself determines the realistic goal setting and thus nullifies the issue of the fear of failure. This is not true. The need for Achievement is a state of predisposition. It involves simply the idea of the satisfaction of the Achievement. When this idea is translated into action, it is the organism as an integrated unit which is involved in it. The apprehension of goal attainment is contingent upon the goals themselves. The variable that determines the goal setting task is the incentive value of a specified goal. How much success one could achieve, is the compliment of how much failure one could avoid. The important point is to reduce the fear of failure by stressing the motive for success. It is in this sense that the concept of "Achievement Anxiety" is proposed here.

DIMENSION OF INDIVIDUAL-ENVIRONMENT RELATIONSHIP

Ability to tolerate delay in the need-satisfaction sequence is learned from infancy onwards. The arousal of a need and its gratification is always interfered with by some amount of delay. A child cannot be fed as soon as he feels hungry. Often it is on account of helplessness rather than unwillingness that a mother has to skip over the tight feeding schedule.

With age, there emerges another specification of the variable of delay between the periods of need-arousal and the need-satisfaction. This is the presence of some obstruction which is causing delay in satisfaction of needs. To be precise, this is the perception of the cause of delay. Frustration refers to the state of an organism when he experiences an obstacle between himself and the goal he is aiming at. The next phase consists of the measures he takes in relation to these obstacles. These are known as the reactions to frustration.

The goal directed behaviour is shown nowhere more clearly than in the field of need for Achievement. A person with a high need for Achievement always organizes his behaviour in terms of the goals and the sub-goals, the attainment of which instils in him a feeling of achievement. The realistic goal setting so very characteristic of the individuals with a high need for achievement, and the irrealistic goals laid down by those who are low on $\underline{n}$ Ach, does not suggest that frustration is experienced only by the latter. What it implies that these two types of individuals would experience frustration differently—both in regard to its intensity and frequency. This would tend to produce different kinds of reactions to frustration among them. Those who are high on need for Achievement, when confronted with a frustrating situation, might attribute it to the obstacles lying between them and

their goals. On the other hand, the individuals with a low need Achievement when frustrated, may attribute failure in terms of the ego-defensive reactions.

In this study, the individuals with high n Ach reacted to frustrating situations in terms of the Obstacle-Dominance type of reactions. While those who were low on n Ach showed a preference for the Ego-Defensive reactions. Because of setting their goals within a moderate range of difficulty level, persons with a high n Ach were unable to attain the goals. They could not attribute failure to their inability to set the correct goal. Instead they put the blame on the obstacles without which they thought they could have succeeded. Secondly, frustration is an anticipatory reaction following a goal setting situation. Formulation of goals is also determined by the successes and failures one has had in the past. If a person has repeatedly experienced success he would anticipate success in his present performance also. The reverse will be true if he has been a failure in the past.

Individuals who are high on n Achievement seldom suspect failure in performance, although they operate in the neighbourhood of 50-50 probability of both success and failure. If they are confronted with frustrating situations, they attribute (and reasonably too) their failure to the environment rather than to themselves.

Persons with a low n Achievement, on the other

hand, gave a larger number of responses of the Ego-
Defensive type. In the light of the finding that ego-
involvement in a task increases the performance, it
may be argued that a person with a high n Ach would
also be ego-involved in the task he is doing. This
is because of his expectancy of the feeling of success
which would follow the completion of task. When such
persons are frustrated they should come out with the
reactions aiming at the defense of their ego. On the
contrary, it was found in this study that the ego-
defensive reactions were characterised by those who were
low on n Ach. This sounds paradoxical.

It seems sound to expect a positive relation-
ship between ego-involvement and the need for Achievement
but there are many other factors which need to be
considered in this context. The fear of failure, for
instance, is much lower in the case of those who are
high on n Ach. Such persons are concerned with the
satisfaction that follows goal attainment. Persons
with a low n Ach, on the other hand, are concerned more
with the process of goal attainment rather than what
follows thereafter. The failure in goal attainment
means different things to these two types of persons.
For the high n Achievers, it means being deprived of
a sense of Achievement. For the low n Achievers it
amounts to the inability to achieve the goal rather
than what follows the goal attainment. It may be because

of this that the Obstacle-Dominance responses characte-
rised persons who scored high on n Ach while the Ego-
Defensive reactions went with those who were low on
n Ach. Similar findings were also reported by Muthayya
(1964,1965) who observed that the subjects with a high
n Ach gave predominantly the Obstacle-Dominance res-
ponses, while those who were low on n Ach produced the
Ego-Defensive reactions.

DIMENSION OF EGO MEASURE

The construct of self has been conceptualized
differently in various contributions. Lowe (1961) poin-
ted out that self ahas been understood (a) as an agent
of cognition, (b) as a motivator, (c) as a humanistic
concept, (d) as an organizer, (e) as a pacifier, and
(f) as a subjective voice of the culture. Out of these,
self as a motivator has been demonstrated in the
context of need for Achievement. The empirical studies
on need for Achievement tend to suggest that self
functions as a motivating factor in personality and
involves a feeling of pride and importance in relation
to others. This view is closer to the phenomenal self
of Snygg and Combs (1949) who ascribed a dual role
to self : self as an object and self as a doer. In the
words of Snygg and Combs,"...the self is composed of
perceptions concerning the individual and this organization

of perceptions in turn has vital and important effects upon the behaviour of the individual." (vide Hall and Lindzey, 1957, p.470). Rogers too holds that self is a differentiated portion of the phenomenal field and comprises the perceptions of "I" or "me" (Rogers, 1951).

The self evolves out of a series of interactions between the individual and his environment. It is rooted in the ego-ideal (Cameron, 1963), which represents an over evaluated narcissistic self. Like the body image, the self-image too possesses an internal and an external aspect. The former is the self as the individual sees himself to be, while the latter is the self, what he feels others think of him. It is necessary to distinguish between the self-image and the self-concept. The function of body image is to furnish information about the physical features of a person, to make him emotionally sensitive in relation to his body parts and physical attractiveness. Obviously, the body image plays a vital role in females because of the socio-cultural implications in regard to women. The body image makes one aware of one's existence as an object which is different from the rest of the objects. It provides him with something which could be concretized and related to other objects. In fact, body image is a precursor of the self image. It is the initial stage differentiating between the "I" and the "non-I".

The self-image/into existence when the body
comes

image begins to operate on an abstract level. That is,
when the reactions to one's physical features tend to
organize themselves into a pattern. The self-image is
an outcome of three types of reactions : (a) reactions
of an individual towards his own physical features, (b)
reactions of others towards his physical features, and
(c) his reactions to the reactions of others. Thus,
a person may develop the feelings of likes and dislikes
in relation to his body parts. He may feel that he
possesses a healthy body. A woman may think she has a
charming face and attractive features. At the same time
she may feel that others do not think about her features
the way she does : others do not feel that she has a
charming face, though they admit, she may concede, or
that on the whole, she possesses attractive features.
Becoming aware of how others reac toward her body, she
may proceed to attribute certain reactions to their reac-
tions. She may rationalize that they are jealous of
her because she is charming to look at. Or she may
compensate by consulting a beautician, or may insulate
herself by avoiding "the critical others". In all these,
she is reacting to the reactions of others. This is the
level of abstraction and an immediate forerunner of the
self-image.

The self-concept or the self-image is an outcome

of the interactions between the private and the social
aspects of the body-image. It is not identical with
the either, and represents the two in interaction. The
self-concept is an abstracted differentiation between
the "me" and the "non-me". As pointed out earlier, it
develops out of the matrix of phenomenal experiences.

The significance of self-concept lies in the
fact that it functions as a nucleus of personality. Round
it revolve the various facets of a person's behaviour.
It provides a unity to personality and functions as an
integrating force in the organism. In fact that is the
basic thesis of the holistic approach to behaviour. "What
has been called self-identity, ego-identity, and self-
actualization belongs to the central representations of
the self or the self-image." (Cameron, 1965, p.196).

In regard to the self-actualization, it is quite
legitimate to expect that self-actualization is a
function of an individual's self-image. How else is
he going to realize potentialities, to be all that he
could be, unless he knew what he was, or he could be ?
This is nowhere more clearly shown than in the area of
goal setting behaviour. Setting up the goals to be
attained is guided by one's assessment of one's abilities
and capacities. A person with a magnified and inflated
self-image, such as found in hypomanics, is likely to
fix up goals which are normally considered very difficult
or impossible. On the other hand, a person possessing

a cramped or shrunk self-image may like to play safe and would attempt only those assignments where successful completion is a sure guarantee. In between these two extremes would be an individual who would fix up his goals which are neither too difficult nor too easy. The self of such an individual would be comparatively a compact system. It would not deviate too much from his ego-ideal. This is the person who may be expected to possess a high amount of need for Achievement.

In this study, a person with a high n Ach rated his self as impulsive, self-respecting, social, and honest, while the one who was low on n Ach described himself as kind and obedient.

These findings seem to be consistent with what has been mentioned in the above paragraphs. A strong motive for success and a keen drive to enjoy a sense of Achievement could make a high n Achiever impulsive in his behaviour for the simple reason that he is too excited to devour the feeling of attainment. Because of repeated successes which follow a realistic goal setting, a high n Achiever also possesses a strong sense of self-confidence and consequent to that, of self-respect. Individuals possessing a low need for Achievement described themselves as being kind and obedient. True. These are the qualities which hardly have much to do with the need for Achievement.

The fact that the high n Achievers' Self-Concept

included a greater number of qualities, lends support to the view that a high need for Achievement favours a compact self-image, because of a greater ego-involvement.

The discrepancy scores indicated that the fear of being under-estimated by others was inversely related to need for Achievement. This suggests the absence of insight in the case of persons who were low on n Ach. Moreover, greater discrepancy is also suggestive of poor adjustment in case of the subjects who are low on n Achievement. The ability to set realistic goals, so very characteristic of the individuals with a high n Ach, is a direct function of the level of one's adjustment. Persons who are well adjusted tend to set up more realistic goals than those who are poorly adjusted. Obviously, therefore, one may be justified to expect a greater discrepancy between the private and the social selves in the case of the individuals scoring low on the need for Achievement.

It has further been held that larger discrepancies between the private self and social self are not plausible (Wylie, 1961). In the present study, it was found that the discrepancies were greater in the case of persons who had scored low on n Ach both in males and females. This suggests a feeling of inferiority in relation to others. It is reasonable to hold this because the irrealistic goal setting in the case of low n Achievers exposes

them to greater chances of experiencing failures. The criticism meted out to them by others is rationalised by stressing the point that the others tend to under-estimate their capacities.

A compact self image possessed by the subjects who were high on need Achievement tends to bring out the earlier reported view of the self as motivator of behaviour. Such individuals prefer to assert themselves in situations where they could take the responsibility of doing something and thus enjoy a sense of pride after the job is done well. The self of these individuals is not a cognitive self nor a self that acts as a pacifier. It is a phenomenal self. It is a differentiated pattern of their perceptions, a differentiation in their phenomenal field. It is a self that functions as a doer.

PERSONALITY PATTERNS

Personality could be appropriately defined as "as organism-environment field" (Murphy, 1947). The organism and the environment are the two facets of personality or what Angyall calls the biosphere (Angyal, 1941). Assessment of this "field" is no easy job. It is a challenge to the scientist who considers measurement to be a goal of vital importance in any discipline. In view of the fluidity of the nature of personality its assessment has been approached at two different levels. At one level, illustrative measures of which are the objective tech-niques, personality is conceptually reduced to a number

of components or dimensions. Each of the objective tech-
niques aims at measuring one or more of these dimensions.
At the other level, personality is assessed as a system,
the "real" nature of which is not amenable to direct ob-
servation. The projective tools belong to this level.
It is believed by the proponents of the projective devices,
that personality, because of its unconscious determinants,
is not available for observation in its raw form, unless
it is given an opportunity to operate without any resis-
tance. That could be possible only if the measures of
assessment offered a sufficient amount of elasticity for
revealing the uniqueness of each personality. Among such
measures, the Rorschach Inkblot Test and the Thematic
Apperception Test have been holding a coveted status. The
Rorschach Test exposes a personality by bringing out the
manner in which it is maintaining a balance between the
internal and external set of forces operating along a
number of dimensions. The Thematic Apperception Test
provides the assessment of a personality by highlighting
its dynamic structure—the nucleus of personality system.

Since the need for Achievement has been shown
to have given rise to a definite kind of personality
(McClelland, 1964), it is legitimate to expect that the
personality patterns of the persons with a high need
for Achievement would be different from the ones who
are low on n Ach.

The Rorschachs of the male subjects showed them as persons possessing a predominance of rich inner life ($M:\leq C$ ratio). A significantly large number of M's produced by the high n Ach group (also reported by McClelland et al, 1958) suggested that high n Ach was related to creativity. By creativity is meant "a capacity to integrate archaic impulses within the organization of self and conscious values, and to integrate inner experience with external reality and its demands".(Klopfer et al, 1954, Vol.I, p.259). A higher level of ego functioning was indicated in the males with a high n Achievement. They produced significantly more M's and FM's than the male subjects with low n Ach. An almost normal W:M ratio and a greater number of R also supported the hypothesis of creativity in the individuals with a high need Achievement. They could mobilize creative energy to support their ambitions.

The M: FM ratio, however, ran counter to the above argument. Contrary to the usual finding of having FM as one-half the M, it was noted that the high n Ach as well as the low n Ach males produced almost equal amount of M and FM responses. It means that both the groups did not harbour any conflict between their impulses and their value systems. This showed they possessed a normal, healthy, and a balanced life.

Presence of the organizational interest and a

normal concern with the obvious details of a situation characterised the high n Ach subjects. They seemed to be the people who possessed an adequate ability for perceptual differentiation.

An emphasis on F% seemed to uphold the hypothesis of "neurotic constriction" (Klopfer et al, 1954) in the case of low n Ach individuals. This was further supported by the higher F+ % in this case. A low amount of n Ach thus did not facilitate an impersonal perception of the world.

The female high and low n Ach subjects did not differ on R; and W, D, Dd. In other indices the differences were prominently displayed. Like the male sample, they too showed that the high n Ach meant a rich fantasy life, a balance between impulses and the value system, an organizational interest with a fair amount of creative potential, and an ability to perceive world on a personal level.

On the Thematic Apperception Test also, the persons with a high n Ach showed themselves as more rich in fantasy, creative, dynamic, ambitious and emotionally rich in content. As on the Rorschach, here too, sex differences were often inconsistent.

To sum up, a high amount of n Ach seemed to go with an introversive personality which possessed an ability to organize and differentiate his percepts within

the normal range (determined by productive energies
on the one hand and ambitions on the other). This pic-
ture seemingly fits well into the theoretical formula-
tions in regard to the _n_ Ach as outlined in the Chapters
1 and 2, particularly the fact that affect in relation
to performance was the prime differential of _n_ Achieve-
ment.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study provides yet another empirical support
in favour of the central role of the need for Achievement
in behaviour. The often levied argument that the cons-
tructs such as the "_n_Achievement", or the "trait" claiming
to explain a phenomenon provide in fact only the "redun-
dant descriptions of the phenomenon" (Bindra, 1959) is
not tenable for two reasons. The description and the
explanation lie along a continuum of functional relation-
ships, one end of which represents the concepts possessing
sound theoretical and empirical referents, and the
other end includes the concepts which, though theoreti-
cally sound, may be in want of sufficient supportive
observations. The explanatory concepts are on the former
end of the continuum while the descriptive ones are on
the latter. Both of these, however, aim at unfolding the
functional relationships existing in a set of variables.
The explanation of an event emerges from and is based
upon its description. Implicit in the processes of explanation

and description is the presence of an analytic attitude. It is, therefore, not true that the constructs like _n_ Ach fall short of the scientific rigour simply because they describe, and not explain, a cross-section of behaviour. Another reason why this issue may be termed as futile is that all the branches of knowledge take the descriptive postulates as their starting point. The "causal" postulates come in at a later stage, and are supported by empirical data. The purpose of constructs is to help in an exhilarating act of theory construction. Once the sufficient observations are available, the vagueness and fluidity of the constructs is replaced by the clarity and stability of the empirically anchored concepts.

To conclude, the findings of this research seemed to suggest that a high _n_ Achiever could be visualized as the one who is not very authoritarian, who is not very anxious either, and who is much concerned with the obstacles in his goal-oriented activities. He has comparatively a unified self-image and is a well-adjusted individual. He possesses a rich inner life with a normal relationship between his potentialities and his goals.

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SUMMARY

This investigation aimed at finding out the personality characteristics of the individuals with a high need for Achievement. Taking the goal-directed activity as a criterion for distinguishing between the people, it was postulated that there were two kinds of persons : those who took a sense of pride in their accomplishments and those who did not. Or to be precise, some of the persons could be found as more conscious than others of their achievements and tended to derive a greater sense of satisfaction from their attainments.

Comparing a group of subjects, who possessed varying amounts of n Achievement, along a few personality dimensions, it was proposed to delineate the personality characteristics of the high n Achievers. The Aronson's Graphic Expression Test of n Ach was administered on a sample of 151 University students (88 males and 63 females). Individuals scoring above Q_3 and those scoring below Q_1 constituted "the high n-Ach" and "the low n Ach" groups respectively. A sample of 65 subjects thus selected formed the criterion groups.

The criterion groups were compared along the dimensions of (a) dominance-submission, (b) individual-environment relations, (c) comfort-discomfort, and (d) ego measure. The specific variables corresponding to these dimensions were (a) authoritarianism, (b) reactions to frustration, (c) manifest anxiety, and (d) self-concept. In addition to these, the personality characteristics of the high n Achievers were also studied as reflected on the Rorschach Inkblot Test and the Thematic Apperception Test.

The findings of this study showed that a person with a high n Achievement was less authoritarian, reacted to frustration by stressing the obstacles on the way to his goals, was less anxious, and possessed a good adjustment. On the Rorschach Test and the TAT, he reflected himself as a person with a rich inner life and a realistic relationship between his capacities and his goals.

These results may be seen as consistent with the theory of achievement motivation. A desire for deriving satisfaction from one's accomplishments requires that a person should set his goals within an intermediate range of difficulty, should prefer tasks in which the outcome is more due to his efforts and is also relatively concrete. In regard to sex differences, no regular pattern could be discerned in this study. On many indices, males and the female subjects showed just the opposite trends. This reinforces the idea that the need for Achievement operates differently in the two sexes, and is rooted in the different types of the socio-cultural demands made upon males and females.

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APPENDICES

S. No. _____

C. No. _____

OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS:

Here are a few statements expressing the opinion
of different people on social matters.

Please read each statement carefully and write
on the margin against each statement "A" if you agree with
the idea expressed in the statement and write "D" if you
disagree with the idea.

Be sure that you answer all the statements.

1. Obedience and respect for authority are the
   most important virtues children should learn.

2. A person who has bad manners, habits, and
   breeding can hardly expect to get along with
   decent people.

3. If people would talk less and work more,
   everybody would be better off.

4. The businessman and the manufacturer are
   much more important to society than the artist
   and the professor.

5. Science has its place, but there are many
   important things that can never possibly be
   understood by the human mind.

6. Every person should have complete faith in
   some supernatural power whose decisions he
   obeys without question.

7. Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas,
   but as they grow up they ought to get over
   them and settle down.

8. What this country needs most, more than laws
   and political programmes, is a few courageous,
   tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people
   can put their faith.

9. No sane, normal, decent person could ever
   think of hurting a close friend or relative.

10. Nobody ever learned anything really important
    except through suffering.

11. What the youth needs most is strict discipline,
    rugged determination and the will to work and
    fight for family and country.

12. An insult to our honour should always be punished.

13. Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than mere imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.

14. There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

15. Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feebleminded people.

16. Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.

17. When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.

18. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

19. Some people are born with an urge to jump from high places.

20. People can be divided into two distinct classes : the weak and the strong.

21. Someday it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.

22. Wars and social troubles may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.

23. Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.

--:--

MUTHAYYA'S MADRAS PF STUDY

Department of Psychology, University of Allahabad

Name :

Class :

Age :

Order of Birth :

Sex :

No. of brothers and sisters :

Whether parents are alive :—

(1) Father............If not, step-father

....

(2) Mother...........If not, step-mother

....

Games you play :

(1)...............(2)..............(3)............

School :

Date :

Instructions

In each of the pictures in this leaflet two people are shown talking to each other. The words said by one person are always given. Imagine what the other person in the picture would answer and write in the blank square the very *first* reply that comes into your mind Work as fast as you can.

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

I don't like you to act in the drama.

9

Don't be a book-worm. Let's go to a picture.

10

I do not want you to join the music or dance classes.

11

You can't have the match today. The ground is very wet.

12

13

14

15
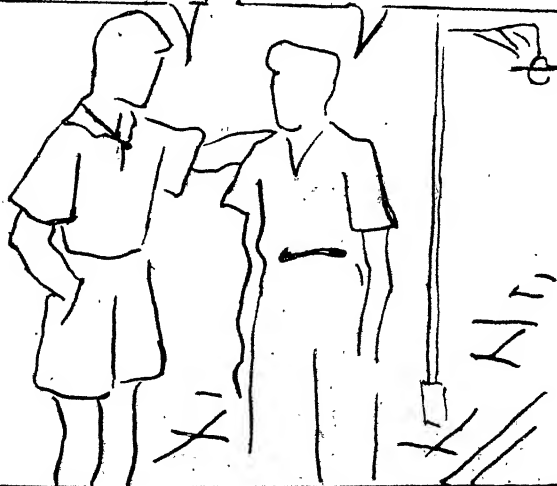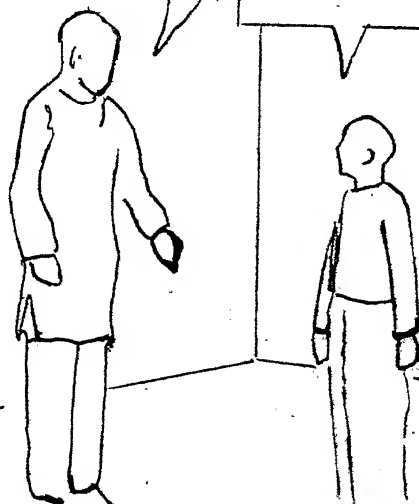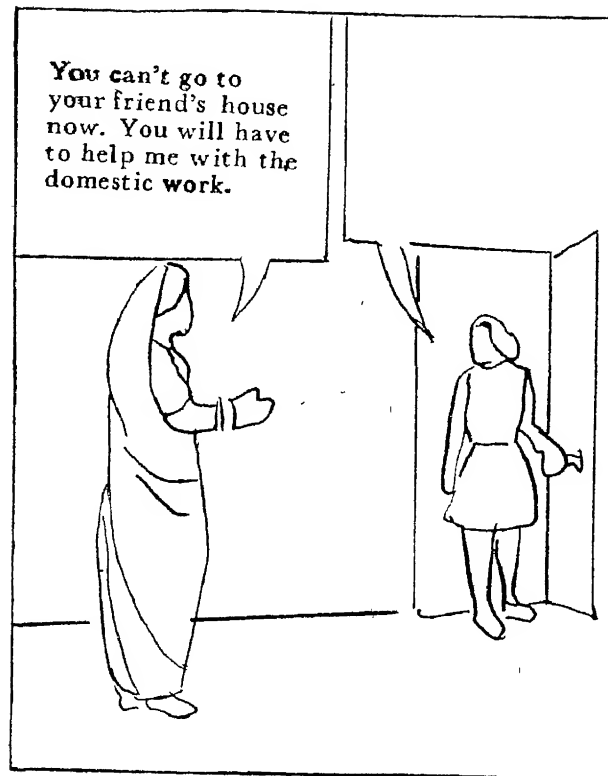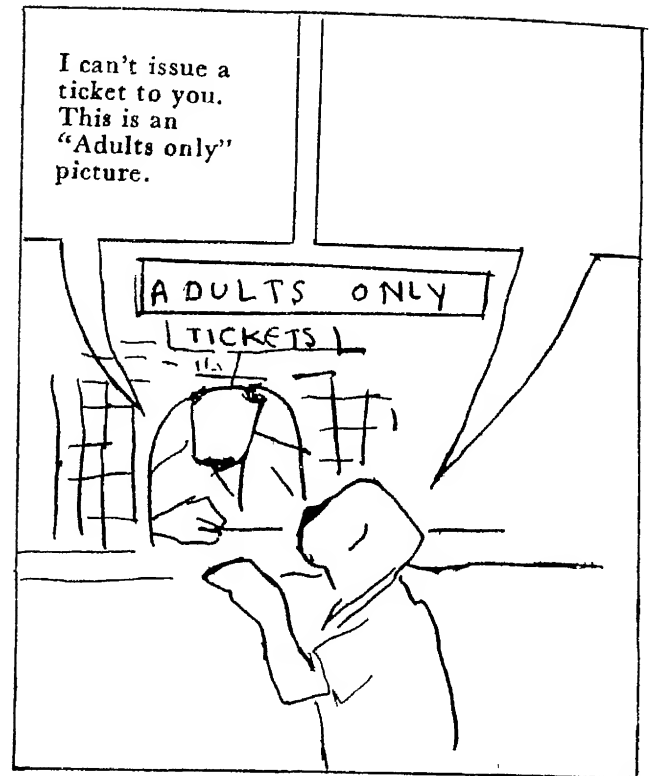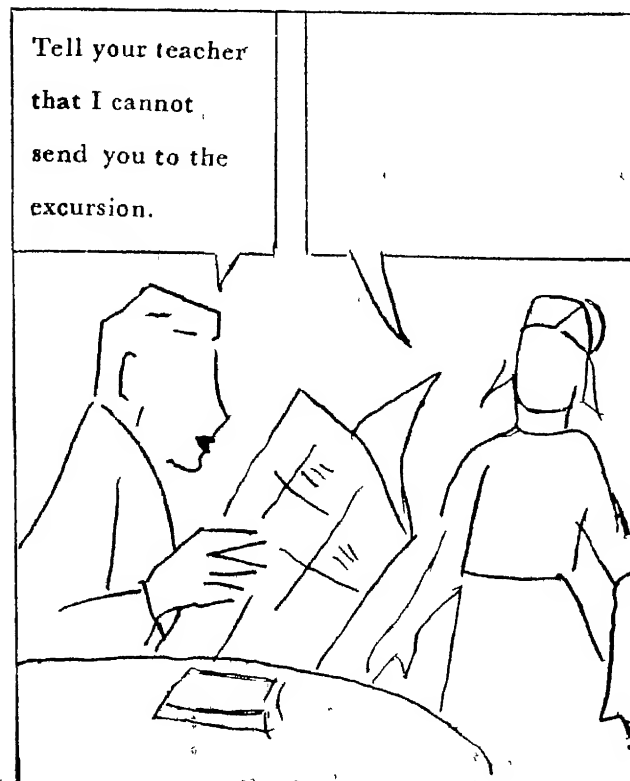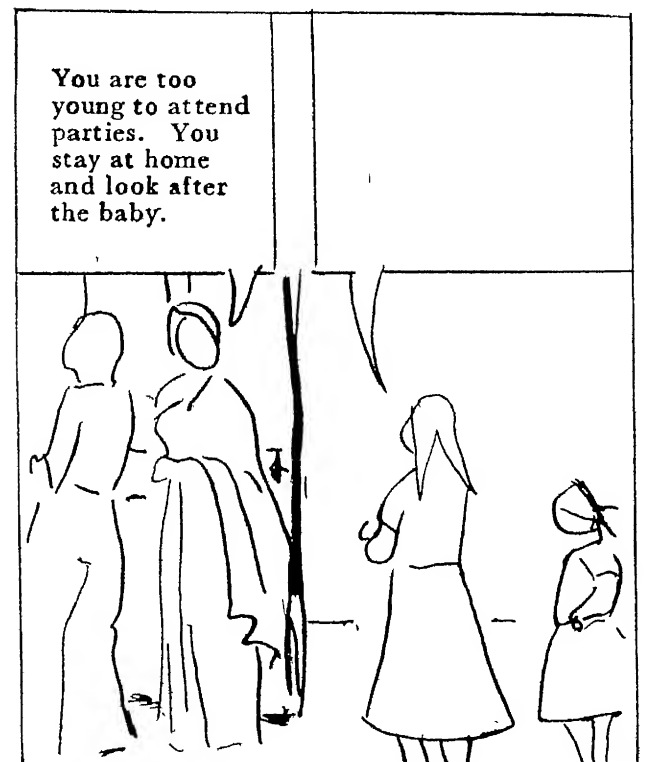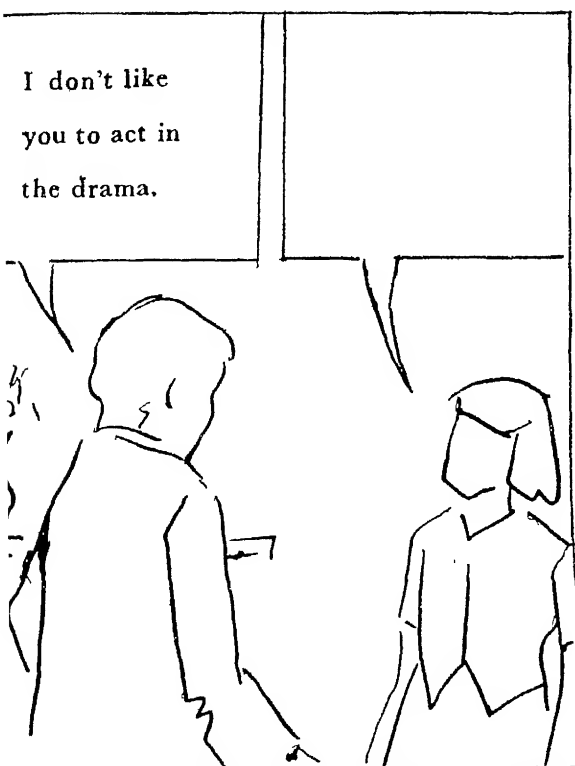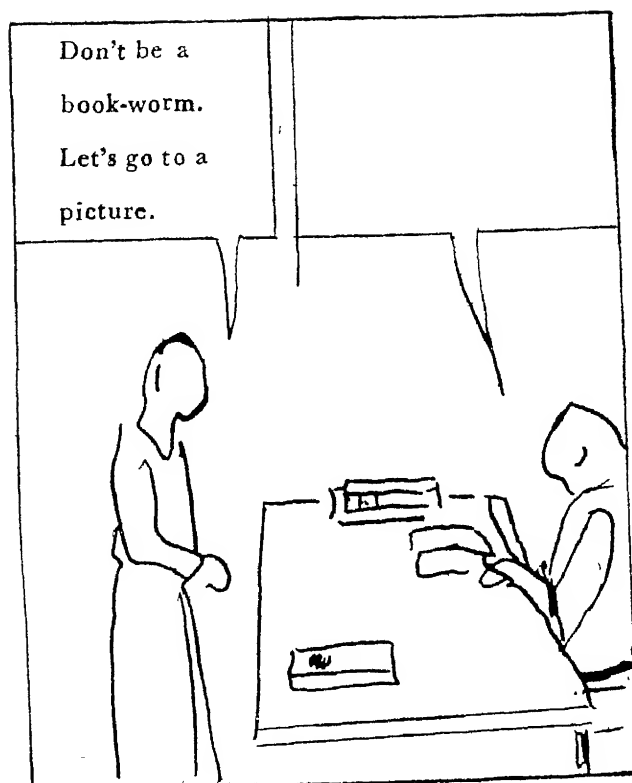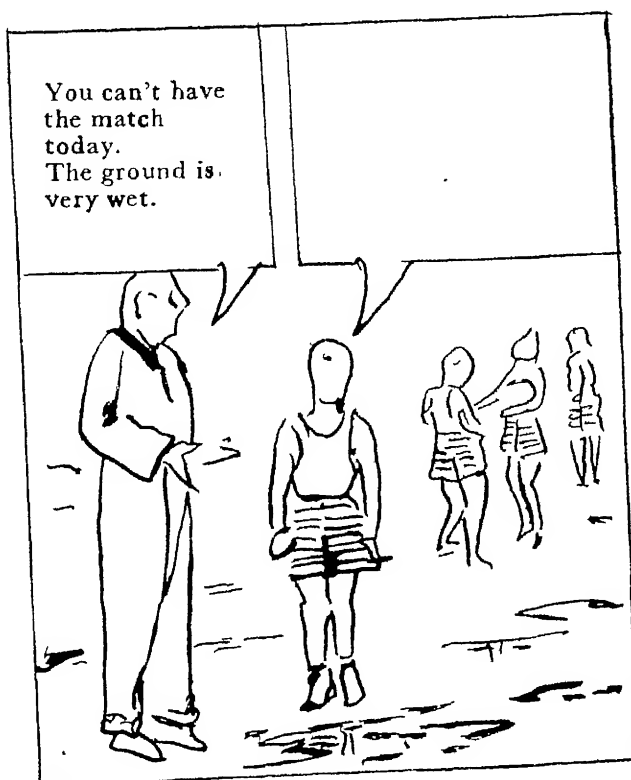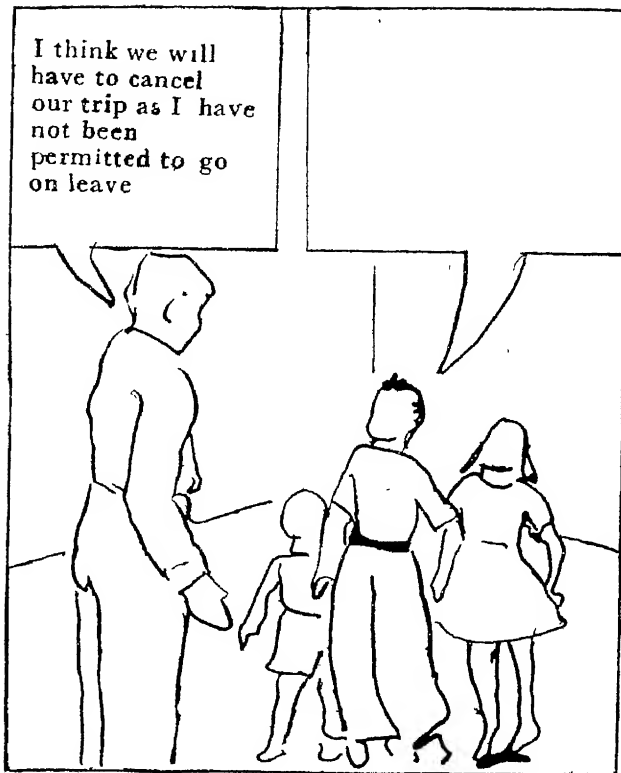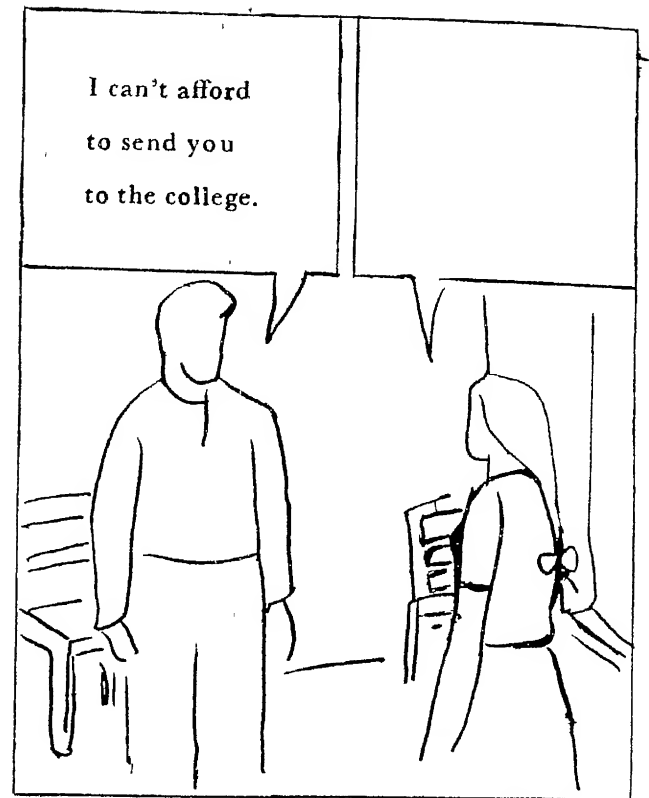
क्रम संख्या................ ....

धंक.. ....

मनोविज्ञान विभाग

प्रयाग विश्वविद्यालय, इलाहाबाद

इन्हें भरो :—

नाम..

कक्षा...

वारीख..

SINHA W. A. SELF-ANALYSIS FORM

निर्देश :—

अगले पृष्टों पर आपकी सामाजिक और व्यावहारिक समस्याओं से संबन्धित कुछ वाक्य दिये हुए हैं । इन वाक्यों में उन्हीं बातों का उल्लेख है जो आप अपने दैनिक जीवन में अनुभव और व्यवहार करते हैं । इन वाक्यों का सम्बन्ध आपकी बुद्धि परीक्षा से नहीं बलिक कुछ तथ्यों की जांच के लिये है ।

सूची में दी हुई प्रत्येक समस्या को ध्यान से पढ़िये । जो आपके व्यवहार व परिस्थिति में सत्य या असत्य हो उनमें से प्रत्येक के सामने "हां" या "नहीं" पर निशान (✓) लगाइये । जैसे:—"मुझे अपने ऊपर बिलकुल विश्वास नहीं है" यदि यह वाक्य आपके व्यवहार में सत्य है तो "हां" के सामने निशान (✓) लगाइए । और यदि असत्य है तो "नहीं" के सामने निशान लगाइए ।

सूची भरने के लिए आपको पूरी स्वतंत्रता है । प्रत्येक समस्या के सामने अपने विचार के अनुसार निशान लगाइए ।

सभी समस्याओं पर निशान लगाना आवश्यक है ।

उत्तर शीघ्र दीजिए

प्रत्येक समस्या का उत्तर देना आवश्यक है ।

क्रम संख्या		निशान (✓) लगाइए	
१.	मुझे तेज सवारी पर चलने से घबड़ाहट होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
२.	मैं थोड़ी सी भी आवाज से घबड़ा जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
३.	विपरीत लिंग के व्यक्ति (Opposite sex) से मिलने पर मुझे कुछ घबड़ाहट-सी मालूम होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
४.	घर के बाहर जाने पर कभी-कभी सन्देह होता है कि मैंने बक्स या दरवाजा बन्द किया या नहीं ।	हाँ	नहीं
५.	मैं अधिकतर यह सोचकर परेशान रहता हूँ कि कहीं लोग मेरा मजाक न उड़ाएँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
६.	कभी-कभी मुझे सन्देह होता है कि मेरे मित्र मेरी गुप्त बातों को प्रकट न कर दें ।	हाँ	नहीं
७.	प्रायः मुझमें अपराध की भावना होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
८.	कभी-कभी में नाखून कुतरता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
९.	मुझे प्रायः एक डर बना रहता है कि कहीं कोई आपत्ति या दुर्भाग्य न टूट पड़े ।	हाँ	नहीं
१०.	ठंडक के दिनों में भी मुझे बड़ी आसानी से पसीना आ जाता है ।	हाँ	नहीं
११.	मुझे प्रायः बुरे और डरावने सपने दिखाई देते हैं ।	हाँ	नहीं
१२.	मुझे कभी-कभी यह चिन्ता हो जाती है कि कहीं मैं नपुंसक न हो जाऊँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
१३.	मैं कभी-कभी इस विचार से परेशान हो जाता हूँ कि मैं अपने काम में अधिक प्रगति नहीं कर पाऊँगा ।	हाँ	नहीं
१४.	अपनी आलोचना सुनकर में बहुत घबड़ा जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
१५.	कभी-कभी अपने ऊपर इतनी आत्म-ग्लानि होती है कि मन करता है कि समाज से कहीं दूर भाग जाऊँ ।	हाँ	नहीं

क्रम संख्या		निशान (✓) लगाइए	

१६. यदि कोई मेरी गलतियाँ दूसरों के सामने कहता है तो में विचलित-सा हो जाता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

१७. मैं बीमारी के कीटाणुओं के भय से शायद ही कभी घर के बाहर पानी पीता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

१८. कभी-कभी में अकारण ही दुखी हो जाता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

१९. मुझे अधिकतर ऐसा लगता है कि दूसरे लोग मेरी उपेक्षा कर रहे हैं । हाँ नहीं

२०. में बड़ी आसानी से धर्म सकट में पड़ जाता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

२१. किसी एक कार्य पर ध्यान केन्द्रित करना मेरे लिये प्राय: मुश्किल हो जाता है । हाँ नहीं

२२. अक्सर मेरा जी मचलाता है । हाँ नहीं

२३. काम करते समय मेरे हाथ कांपते हैं । हाँ नहीं

२४. मुझे कभी-कभी भय हो जाता है कि नए कपड़े पहन कर में बेढंगा न लगूँ । हाँ नहीं

२५. मुझे यह जानकर परेशानी होती है कि मेरा मुँह शर्म से लाल होने जा रहा है । हाँ नहीं

२६. मुझे अधिकतर ऐसा लगता है कि मेरा दिल जोर से धड़क रहा है । हाँ नहीं

२७. मुझे दूसरों की अपेक्षा अधिक घबड़ाहट होती है । हाँ नहीं

२८. मुझे अक्सर गाने की इच्छा होती है । हाँ नहीं

२९. कभी-कभी चिन्ता के कारण मुझे नींद नहीं आती । हाँ नहीं

३०. मुझे अपने से बड़े (निर्देशक, अध्यापक, अधीक्षक) से मिलने में परेशानी होती है । हाँ नहीं

३१. कभी-कभी में बहुत बेचैन हो उठता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

३२. दूसरों की गलतियों पर भी में शर्मिन्दा हो जाता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

३३. जल्दी काम करने से मेरा दम फूलने लगता है । हाँ नहीं

३४. में अपना काम काफी मानसिक तनाव की हालत में करता हूँ । हाँ नहीं

३५. अक्सर मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मुझे कोई नहीं चाहता । हाँ नहीं

३६. मेरे सामने कोई कठिन काम आने पर में कांपने लगता हूँ या मुझे पसीना आने लगता है । हाँ नहीं

३७. कभी-कभी सपने में देखता हूँ कि में बुरी तरह बीमार हो गया हूँ । हाँ नहीं

३८. कभी-कभी में ऐसे सपने देखता हूँ जो दूसरों से कहने लायक नहीं होते । हाँ नहीं

क्रम संख्या   निशान ✓) लगाइए

३९.   किसी चीज के लिए प्रतीक्षा करना मेरे लिए एक परेशानी हो जाती है ।   हाँ   नहीं

४०.   मेरी भावनाओं को बड़ी जल्दी ठेस लग जाती है ।   हाँ   नहीं

४१.   मैं हमेशा किसी न किसी चीज के लिए परेशान रहता हूँ ।   हाँ   नहीं

४२.   मैं हरदम पेट की गड़बड़ी से परेशान रहता हूँ ।   हाँ   नहीं

४३.   किसी भी प्रकार के निश्चय पर पहुँचने में मुझे बहुत कठिनाई होती है ।   हाँ   नहीं

४४.   मैं कभी-कभी व्यर्थ की बातों के लिए भी चिन्तित हो जाता हूँ ।   हाँ   नहीं

४५.   मैं अधिकतर डरा करता हूँ कि कहीं मैं अपने मित्रों को न खो बैठूं ।   हाँ   नहीं

४६.   कभी-कभी मैं इतना उत्तेजित हो जाता हूँ कि साफ-साफ बोल नहीं पाता ।   हाँ   नहीं

४७.   मुझे अन्य लोगों की अपेक्षा अधिक आत्म संकोच (Self conscious) होता है ।   हाँ   नहीं

४८.   मुझे जीवन अधिकतर एक भार सा लगता है ।   हाँ   नहीं

४९.   मुझे अपने ऊपर बिलकुल विश्वास नहीं है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५०.   कभी-कभी मेरे लिए मानसिक स्थिरता बनाए रखना कठिन हो जाता है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५१.   जब बुरे सपने के कारण मेरी नींद टूट जाती है तो मेरे लिए फिर सोना मुश्किल हो
      जाता है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५२.   कभी-कभी मुझे छोटी-छोटी बातों पर भी लज्जा और क्षोभ होता है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५३.   जब मुझे किसी अनजान व्यक्ति से मिलना हो तो मुझे घबड़ाहट होती है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५४.   मेरी नींद रात में कई बार टूट जाती है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५५.   कभी-कभी मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मैं समाज को मुँह दिखलाने लायक नहीं हूँ ।   हाँ   नहीं

५६.   जब दो या अधिक लोग कानाफूसी करते हैं तो मुझे लगता है कि वे मेरे ही बारे में बात कर
      रहे हैं ।   हाँ   नहीं

५७.   यदि मुझ से कोई अनुचित सामाजिक व्यवहार हो जाता है तो मैं उसे भूल नहीं पाता ।   हाँ   नहीं

५८.   जीवन की बीती घटनाओं को सोचकर मुझे कुछ क्षोभ-सा होता है ।   हाँ   नहीं

५९.   कभी-कभी मैं यह सोचकर परेशान हो जाता हूँ कि बूढ़े होने पर मेरे बच्चे मेरा आदर नहीं करेंगे ।   हाँ   नहीं

क्रम संख्या		निशान (√) लगाइये	
६०.	यात्रा शुरू करने से पहले में कुछ चिन्तित हो जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
६१	में ऐसी परिस्थितियों में पड़ना पसन्द नहीं करता जिनमें निर्णय शीघ्र करना पड़ता है ।	हाँ	नहीं
६२.	मुझे अक्सर यह चिन्ता बनी रहती है कि में देखने में सुन्दर नहीं हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
६३.	कभी-कभी मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि में शीघ्र बूढ़ा होने लगा हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
६४.	यदि मुझे डाक्टर या सर्जन के पास दिखलाने के लिए जाना होता है तो मुझे घबड़ाहट होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
६५.	कभी-कभी मुझे शंका हो जाती है कि मेरे मित्र मुझे धोखा न दें ।	हाँ	नहीं
६६.	जब में कोई नया काम करता हूँ तो मुझे परेशानी रहती है कि दूसरे समर्थन करेंगे या नहीं ।	हाँ	नहीं
६७.	में अपने स्वास्थ्य के विषय में अधिकतर चिन्तित रहा करता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
६८.	लोगों के बीच भी में अधिकतर अकेला महसूस करता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
६९.	जब में किसी व्यक्ति की प्रतीक्षा करता हूँ जिसने किसी निश्चित समय पर आने को कहा है तो मुझे अक्सर ऐसा लगता है कि शायद वह नहीं आएगा ।	हाँ	नहीं
७०.	कभी-कभी में कुछ ऐसे कामों से परेशान हो जाता हूँ जिनको में स्पष्ट रूप से जानता नहीं ।	हाँ	नहीं
७१.	बहुत बार ऐसा होता है कि में साफ साफ नहीं सोच सकता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
७२.	बहुधा में यह नहीं निश्चित कर पाता हूँ कि किस तरह से काम करना मेरे लिए अच्छा होगा ।	हाँ	नहीं
७३.	में बहुधा अपने बारे में अनिश्चित रहता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
७४.	कभी-कभी में ऐसा सोच बैठता हूँ कि में किसी काम का नहीं हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
७५.	मुझे अधिकतर ऐसा लगता है कि यह संसार तथा मनुष्य दोनों ही व्यर्थ हैं ।	हाँ	नहीं
७६.	असफल होने के भय से मुझे किसी काम को शुरू करने में हिचकिचाहट होती है ।	हाँ	नहीं
७७.	सपनों में कभी-कभी में अपने निकट और प्रिय सम्बन्धियों की मृत्यु देखता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
७८.	में शीघ्र ही थक जाता हूँ ।	हाँ	नहीं
७९.	मेरी हथेली में अक्सर पसीना आता है ।	हाँ	नहीं
८०.	में लोगों के सम्मुख बात-चीत करना पसंद नहीं करता, इस डर से कि कहीं लोग मेरा मजाक न उड़ाएँ ।	हाँ	नहीं

क्रम संख्या   निशान (✓) लगाइए

८१. मुझे अक्सर ऐसा लगता है कि मेरे ऊपर कोई आपत्ति आने वाली है।   हाँ   नहीं

८२. कभी-कभी मुझे ऐसा लगता है कि मुझे लोग पसन्द नहीं करते हैं।   हाँ   नहीं

८३. मैं अक्सर चिंतित रहता हूँ कि मेरे भाग्य में क्या लिखा है।   हाँ   नहीं

८४. दूसरों के किए पर मुझे ही प्रायः दोषी ठहराया जाता है।   हाँ   नहीं

८५. मैं अक्सर छोटी-छोटी चीजों के लिए भी परेशान रहता हूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

८६. मैं यह सोचकर कि शायद अपना वादा पूरा न कर पाऊँ अक्सर परेशान हो जाता हूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

८७. कठिन परिस्थितियों में मैं बहुत उत्तेजित हो उठता हूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

८८. मुझे करीब-करीब हर समय भूख-सी लगती है।   हाँ   नहीं

८९. मैं अक्सर चिंतित रहता हूँ कि मैं भविष्य में शायद किसी संकट में न पड़ जाऊँ।   हाँ   नहीं

९०. यह चिन्ता मुझे परेशान करती है कि जब मैं बूढ़ा हो जाऊँगा तो मेरा स्वास्थ्य न
     खराब हो जाए।   हाँ   नहीं

९१. परिवार में दुर्घटना और मौत की संभावना सोचकर मैं परेशान हो जाता हूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

९२. मुझे इस बात की अक्सर चिन्ता रहती है कि मैं अपने काम से निकाल न दिया जाऊँ।   हाँ   नहीं

९३. कभी-कभी मैं इतना उत्तेजित हो उठता हूँ कि मेरे लिए सोना कठिन हो जाता है।   हाँ   नहीं

९४. यह सोचकर मुझे चिन्ता होती है कि एक दिन मैं भी बूढ़ा हो जाऊँगा।   हाँ   नहीं

९५. मैं अपनी बेचैनी शायद ही कभी छिपा पाता हूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

९६. मैं विपरीत लिंग (Opposite sex) के लोगों से बात करते समय कुछ हकलाने-सा लगता हूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

९७. कभी मुझे ऐसा शक होने लगता है कि मेरे मित्र मेरे बूढ़े होने पर मेरी इज्जत नहीं करेंगे।   हाँ   नहीं

९८. बुढ़ापे में शारीरिक शक्ति के क्षीण होने की संभावना मुझे सताया करती है।   हाँ   नहीं

९९. कभी-कभी मैं यह सोचकर परेशान हो जाता हूँ कि क्रोध में मैं किसी की हत्या न कर दूँ या
     भारी नुकसान न पहुँचा दूँ।   हाँ   नहीं

१००. इस बात की मुझे अधिकतर चिन्ता रहती है कि मेरे मरने के बाद मेरे परिवार की क्या दशा
     होगी।   हाँ   नहीं

<u>SELF CONCEPT INVENTORY</u>

निर्देश
―――

बहुत बार भी काम की पहले की की तरह ― किसी एक विचार के नीचे निशान लगाना है । फुर्ती आप बताना है कि बहुत बार आपको यह बताना है कि दूसरे की नजर में ये विशेषताएं निश्चित रूप से आप में किस हद तक हैं ।

ध्यान रहे कि बहुत बार आप को अपने बारे में दूसरों की राय क्योंकि जैसा आपको लगता है आपके बारे में दूसरे लोगों से, बतलाना है ।

१-निश्चय कर काम करने की आदत ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

२-लोकप्रिय ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

३-द्वेष या ईर्ष्या ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

४-चयन ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

५-सुख भावना ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

६-जोश में आकर काम करने की आदत ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

७-देखने में सुन्दर ―――――――――――――――――
बहुत अधिक अधिक साधारण कम नहीं के बराबर है
५ ५ ३ २ १

८–कमाई भले का आदर

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

९–कुण्ठा

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१०–फिजूलखार

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

११–वर्तमान की सोच अवकाशा

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१२–बुद्धि

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१३–कमाई वाव मम्बाणि की वादत

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१४–खेलों के ऊपर नियंत्रण

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१५–ईमानदारी

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

निर्देश

नीचे दी कुछ विशेषताओं को ध्यान से पढ़िये । इन विशेषताओं के सामने एक ओर पर पांच विचार, बहुत अधिक है, अधिक है, साधारण है, कम है, नहीं के बराबर है, लिखे हुए है । जिस विचार से यह जाहिर हो कि आपको अपनी राय में यह विशेषतायें निश्चित रूप से आपमें जिस हद तक है, उस विचार के नीचे निशान — लगा दें । जैसे अगर कोई विशेषता आप में बहुत अधिक है, तो 'बहुत अधिक है' के नीचे निशान लगाइये; और अधिक है तो 'अधिक है' के नीचे निशान लगाइये; और साधारण है तो 'साधारण है' के नीचे निशान लगाइये; और नहीं के बराबर हो तो 'नहीं के बराबर' के नीचे निशान लगाइये ।

इसमें छिपाने की कोई बात नहीं है, क्योंकि ये विशेषतायें हर आदमी में थोड़ा या बहुत पाई जाती है ।

ध्यान रखें कि आप को अपने बारे में अपनी राय देना है ।

१—मिलजुल कर काम करने की आदत

बहुत अधिक है	अधिक है	साधारण है	कम है	नहीं के बराबर है
५	४	३	२	१

२—लोकप्रिय

बहुत अधिक है	अधिक है	साधारण है	कम है	नहीं के बराबर है
५	४	३	२	१

३—डाह या ईर्ष्या

बहुत अधिक है	अधिक है	साधारण है	कम है	नहीं के बराबर है
५	४	३	२	१

४—घमंड

बहुत अधिक है	अधिक है	साधारण है	कम है	नहीं के बराबर है
५	४	३	२	१

५—हीन भावना

बहुत अधिक है	अधिक है	साधारण है	कम है	नहीं के बराबर है
५	४	३	२	१

६—खोज में जाकर काम करने की आदत

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

७—देखने में सुन्दर

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

८—बचाव करने की आदत

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

९—सख्त

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१०—शिष्टाचार

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

११—अपने को कीमती समझना

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१२—वृद्धि

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१३—अपनी बात मनवाने की आदत

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१४—दूसरों के ऊपर नियंत्रण

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १

१५—वैभवशाली

बहुत अधिक है ५	अधिक है ४	साधारण है ३	कम है २	नहीं के बराबर है १